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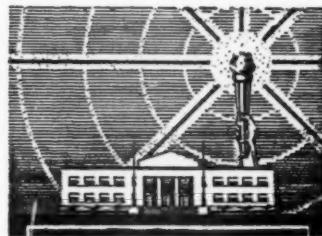
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FOR TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS



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THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

VOLUME XLIII, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1952

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIII, NUMBER 8

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

DECEMBER, 1952

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Contents

As the Editor Sees It	314
American History Needs a New Kind of Textbook	Paul R. Schreiber 315
The Teacher and Social Studies: Part IV	
The Social Studies Teacher and American History	Donald H. Stewart 317
A Brief History of OPS (Two Years of Price Control)	
Tale of Two Cities—With a Latin Flavor	Thomas J. Hailstones 325
Democratic Government in Scandinavia	Sam H. Jones 332
The Teachers' Page	Samuel Abrahamsen 335
Visual and Other Aids	Hyman M. Boodish 338
News and Comment	Irwin A. Eckhauser 340
Book Reviews and Book Notes	R. T. Solis-Cohen 342
Current Publications Received	David W. Harr 345
Index to Volume XLIII	348
	350

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As the Editor Sees It

This page is being written a week before the presidential election, and at this time no one seems really sure how the vote will go. The final hectic days of the campaign are drawing to a close and schools all over the country are conducting mock elections and debating the issues. By the time these words appear in print, the outcome of the contest will already be history, the first election in a quarter of a century in which no former President was a candidate.

The process by which Americans choose a President is a unique one, unlike that of any other nation. Nearly a year ago the leading figures of each party began stumping the country, hurling charges at each other and seeking to line up for themselves blocs of convention delegates. Finally in mid-summer the great nominating conventions were held where in a setting only slightly removed from country-store politics each party chose its nominee. For some three months since, each group has carried on a violent struggle to capture the independent voter, raid the opposing ranks, and hold its own supporters intact. Radio, television, the press, all the arts of the advertising agency have been employed, while the candidates swept back and forth across the country, speaking at conventions, dinners, mass meetings and cross-roads gatherings. Accusations and counter-charges have flown about like confetti at a wedding. Ultimately, by a complicated process of indirect election, the voters will make known their choice.

At first glance this year-long process seems most intricate and unscientific as a means of choosing the best of 150,000,000 people for the highest political post in the land. In many ways it lacks dignity, solemnity and good taste; there seems little in it that would be calculated to determine the ability of a man to cope with the tremendous problems of the American Presidency. Yet this peculiarly American process for selecting a President has been used for nearly a century and a half with remarkably good results. It has brought to the top a number of very capable men, several unquestionably

great men, and only two or three who can properly be considered as unworthy of the post. None of them has been dishonest, traitorous, or personally immoral, which is more than can be said of the heads of nearly any other country in such a time span. The few Presidents who might be classed as failures have merely been men who were not big enough for the job.

What is there about this apparently illogical and strongly emotional process of selection which can produce such a generally good record over so many years? On the face of it, it should fail, since it is a far cry from the methods we use to choose the leaders of our great corporations, our schools and universities, or even most of our lesser public offices. In all these fields the selection is commonly based on experience, on demonstrated ability in the same type of work, on exhaustive tests or on specialized training. Only the Presidency may be won by a man who has qualified in none of these ways. He merely must convince the majority of the people that he possesses the personal qualities they admire in a national leader. If he can survive the rough-and-tumble of the campaign so that the people still have confidence in him, his success is assured.

In this perhaps lies the secret. The Presidency needs most of all men of character, vitality, strength and courage. It needs men who can, during the long and trying campaign leading to election, resist the temptations to be petty, vindictive, ill-tempered or wishy-washy. Character and courage are more important in the make-up of a President than technical knowledge. The long testing-time of a presidential campaign gives the people an opportunity to assess each man's ability to stand up to attacks of all kinds. He who comes through the gauntlet of fire unscathed will have a better-than-ever chance of earning a bright place on history's pages. Our presidential campaigns may be undignified, illogical and frequently exasperating to the intelligence. Yet the total effect is probably the most thorough and successful test of character that man has yet devised for his political needs.

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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLIII, NUMBER 8

DECEMBER, 1952

American History Needs A New Kind of Textbook

PAUL R. SCHREIBER

Mackenzie High School, Detroit, Michigan

Nearly every educator in the high school social studies field, at one time or another, faces the task of selecting an American history textbook for adoption by his school. He has many books, perhaps a dozen, to select from and the publishers generously supply sample copies. As the educator goes about his task of examination he finds that much attention is given by authors and editors to organization of topics, units, chapters and bibliography. He no doubt finds many ingenious teaching and learning aids at the end of each chapter.

Without exception, the mechanical and physical features of the books are impressive. They look durable and they are durable. They are also good to look at. They have great "eye appeal," inside and outside. As manufactured articles they certainly rate high as examples of American technological enterprise.

As he studies the content, the examiner of course checks on what has been loosely called "readability." By the use of any of several ingenious mathematical formulas he finds that the "grade level" of most of them is satisfactory. The "reading age" is acceptable. The grammar is correct. The formula used might indicate that the readability and grade level of one of the books is comparable to that of a popular magazine of very wide circulation. This must be the book, therefore, to recommend for adoption. The decision is made. The matter rests there. It is as simple as that.

But if the examiner looks to another objective, toward what might be termed a psychological rather than a mathematical basis

of readability, he does not find it. Textbook writers, seeming unable to decide what should be written and not written, have put in all manner of dates, places, names, events. . . . The books are loaded with facts and details. There is so much to remember that students flounder in the sterile mass of words. To get good passing marks they must make automatons of themselves. They acquire no interpretative feelings in such a process. Their streams of thought dry up. They quickly forget dates, places, names, events and so on because the books attach no meaning or interest to life as they see and feel it. It seems to them a deliberate attempt to kill a love of history. There is, of course, no such deliberate attempt on the part of textbook writers; but if there were, the effort would have to be regarded as highly successful. No American history textbook published today has the faculty of holding the suspended interest of the student reader.

Not one of the books in common use has more than a mediocre literary quality, and most of them have less. There is no attempt to enrich contemporary life with inspiration and color. The books do not tell the story of our people and our country in exciting poetic prose. Nor do we find the heroic qualities of both the great and obscure men and women who made our country. The drama of human existence is totally absent; human interest is lacking. A single edition of a daily newspaper will have more human interest anecdotes than will be found throughout any American history text used in our high schools today.

The American high school student is deprived by his textbooks of the thrill and inspiration of active participation in the American Epic. He loses, thereby, the feeling of the steadiness of moral values and the spiritual integrity of living. He has not been permitted contact with the elemental values of American life. He is denied a cultural interpretation of America in music and art, in drama and in literature. His books do not impart the deep feelings of the meaning of space and freedom, of sunshine and clean air. There is nothing of the deep love of country which could be inspired by the story of the stern majesty of the shining mountains and the loneliness of the vast plains, nor of the high chorus of color in the sunset. There is nothing of the gayety of the country dance, nor of the easy friendliness of our people. The books convey no concept of the deep solitude of the forest where one may almost feel time standing still; nor of the varied moods and ranges of expression of the wind, nor the endless chatter of a clear brook.

Our history texts have not been written by artists. The colors and textures of the American Epic have not been displayed by those with the literary art and ability to do so. Artists have not had the chance to make our students comrades of the folk who have made our country and are continuing the task of building the structure today.

The writer of the conventional history textbook seems incapable (through no fault or deliberate intent of his own) of taking our students into the clash of spirit with circumstance. They seem unable to guide our youth through the great arches of beauty to be found in our story from which has emerged the American spirit. It is to be admitted that high praise and appreciation are due our scholars for their diligent researches. But their work belongs in a different sphere. Their function is to investigate the materials and the details of history; it is, on the other hand, the function of the literary artist to investigate its meaning. At all times in all lands it is the artists, in the final analysis, who are the real interpreters of their people. They, and only they, can diffuse a certain enchantment of living without which men's minds become shrunken and cold.

We Americans are eager to look back and discover the story of our origin as a people. When we find that story, we find that it is a new one, like no other in all history. We find that it flowed across our wilderness on a strong rhythm. When that story is related with drama and color we become deeply inspired by it. When we get it in a form which brings the vitality of the past into the dynamic present we feel without actually saying: "This we were and are, and there is beauty in it."

But our textbooks do not permit this type of subjective, inner experience. Where is the student who honestly says, after he has been taken through his American history textbook: "It was truly a rare pleasure to have read and studied this book. It has made a different person of me. It has made me a better American"? True, there are a handful of graduates from our high schools with a deep feeling for the history of our country. They are the small fraction who retain, unquenched, some spark of historical curiosity. But they invariably give the credit for it to some non-school experience in their lives or to the personality and sincerity of their teachers. Never does their basic textbook share in any praise.

But the vast majority of our graduates have not had their imaginations kindled. As American Folk they come through their American history courses unable to identify themselves with other American Folk and folk groups.

Our story needs to be told to our youth in the form of an Epic Saga. This is the only form which can provide an illuminating glow to the whole story and to each part of it. It is the only form which can express the rhythm which flows from our beautiful land. It is the only form which can reveal the ideals and energies of our great people. It is the only form which can bring into sharp focus our past and our present with a participative emotional experience for our youth which can be retained throughout life.

Our story so told will humanize our history and put it within reach of the common people where they can feel it, and live it. It will add zest to a living narrative. It will emphasize the harmony of the details in the mosaic of American life.

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Americans are faced today with a tough ideological challenge. The American mind seems in confusion. Our fighting men, many of them, are asking what they fought for. There is a desperate search for the stabilizing influences of eternal values. Our history textbooks have been of no help in relieving this strain on our moral integrity.

Ours is a great saga. It should not be lost. It must be put into such form for our high school youth as will inspire a great people and bring peace and confidence to their cramped and troubled spirit. It must be in a form that will make it as eagerly read as a "best seller." For, after all, what could be a greater best seller than the American story?

The Teacher and the Social Studies: Part V

THE SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER AND AMERICAN HISTORY

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It is a truism that, willy-nilly, every man is a historian of sorts. Teachers of the social studies have both the obligation and the opportunity to drive home the reality of this axiom to their students. Even secondary school pupils who have cultivated a resistance against "required" courses possess an interest in history itself. All of us are curious about the house in which we live, the family and environment of which we are a part, and the community, nation and world which surround that environment. It is the social studies teacher's privilege—all too often unappreciated or neglected—to stimulate and cultivate that curiosity, and to direct it toward purposeful, worthwhile ends.

An unrealistic, impossible goal? Definitely not; in today's world it should be more easily attainable than ever before. The movies everywhere transport our students to the days of ancient Rome, to the colonial struggles of America's formative period, or perhaps only as far (and as superficially) as the era of the cattleman in the nation's West. This year's political conventions and campaign make it impossible to avoid a realization of history in the making. Margaret Mitchell, A. B. Guthrie, James Michener, Robert Sherwood, Maxwell Anderson, and a hundred other novelists and playwrights have dealt with historical themes relating to the United States. Collectors of

stamps and coins, students who wish to learn more of autos and planes and nuclear fission, those who have heard veterans tell of Belleau Wood or Iwo Jima, and children who have witnessed their parents struggling with income tax returns, inevitably are brought in contact with the stuff of which history is made. Newsreels, wirephoto pictures, radio and television give the average individual, of whatever age, a sense of taking part in significant events to a degree hitherto unknown. The student who writes a letter, possesses pleasant recollections of a party, desires to know the explanation for the name of his school or street or town, keeps a diary, or tells of the adventures on his last vacation trip has a spiritual kinship with the historian.

By definition, the social studies deal with men in the various aspects of their relationships with one another. If the chief purpose of our educational system is to develop worthwhile citizens, the social studies are the very heart of the curriculum. And no other field—this statement can be made without qualification, since philosophy is rarely if ever taught on the secondary level—has such protean aspects as does history. It follows that American history—the study of our own nation, and the development of its institutions—if properly taught can, above all other subjects, give meaning to the

rest of the courses in the social studies area. Economics, government, contemporary problems, world history, current events—all have infinitely heightened capacity for understanding and application to the present if presented in the light of our country's development. The teaching of the senior high school problems course for example, is almost devoid of real meaning unless taught in this contexture. Our today is conditioned by our past, and the story of our past impinges upon every phase of our social life. Since we and our students are Americans, the history of the United States is (or can be) most meaningful of all histories in the consideration of today's conditions.

Possibly this would be true for the national history of any people, but it is uniquely so for Americans. More than most countries, our experiences exemplify the synthesis of a larger loyalty from a welter of racial, national, credal, state and sectional allegiances. Those experiences demonstrate the gains made in the long slow climb toward the greatest degree of individual freedom consonant with the welfare of society, and toward the realization of the possibilities in the cooperative tradition. What other country has a more dramatic story of how national unity was attained, or shows half as well the capabilities of a federalism which may some day prove to be the solution of the age-old problem of global peace?¹

Fortunately and obviously, American history has been widely and publicly recognized as a vital part in "any program of preparation for intelligent American citizenship. . . ."² Almost every state requires courses in the subject, and the majority of high school students have been exposed to United States history at least three times before graduation.³ The concern shown by such papers as the *New York Times*⁴ and the armed forces' orientation program during World War II is indicative of the importance attached to the topic. Even Congress took cognizance of the *Times'* survey revealing a distressing ignorance on the part of many college students concerning many facts in the nation's past. Irrespective of the merits of some of the conclusions drawn—need for making more history courses required, criticism of secondary and collegiate pedagogy, or assertions that the test given had been poorly drawn and was

inconclusive—the furor raised is proof conclusive that the history of this country cannot logically or safely be neglected by any social studies teacher.

OBJECTIVES TIE IN WITH OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES

A glance, perhaps repetitious for many, at the major concepts and objectives of American history strongly reinforces this conclusion. Effective citizenship can best be taught by showing how its presence and its absence have affected our national career in previous years. The open mind and critical attitude demanded for all real knowledge become especially pertinent when related to America's independent existence and the background for the problems which confront us today. The Red scare and the threats to academic freedom possess both poignancy and perspective when the student comes to realize that these phenomena (like many another) have perplexed earlier generations as well as the present one. An objective approach to the records of America's past can do much to insure a recognition of today's students' part in the world picture, and it is the only hope for furthering the future application of intelligence—rather than emotion or mere force—to the settlement of social issues as they arise.

More than any other course presented to the student, American history aids in revealing the true nature of his environment—geographically, anthropologically, sociologically and every other way. The alert history teacher will point out that geology has been largely responsible for the soil and terrain which have produced the types of occupation and ways of life found in our major geographical areas. Racial and national origins, topographical barriers or lines of communication, economic legislation, religious factors, meteorological conditions and variations in governmental organization, all have played their part in shaping our national destinies. Writers, philosophers and social reformers alike have affected the country in which our students are growing to adulthood. The capable social studies teacher, it is obvious, must likewise be aware of the interrelationship of American history with his own particular field.

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An understanding of the contributions made by multifarious racial, national and religious segments of our population—the problems they have posed and the handicaps they have faced—will develop a cosmopolitanism and tolerance which is indispensable in any social science. True knowledge of our heritage is the best protection we can give future citizens against misrepresentations by demagogues and the self-interested; it is also our own best assurance for the development of an intelligent patriotism. And, like all history, that of our own country is perfectly designed to bring about that key concept in all social studies, an understanding of the inevitability of change. Awareness of this, with a concomitant realization of progress despite some follies in the past, will provide us with a citizenry capable of adjusting to meet new conditions and willing to face them courageously.

Yet with all these boasts the historian understands—and teachers of other social studies should be cognizant of the fact that he understands—that history at its best is only a fragment of the jig-saw puzzle of the past. He is aware that there are many unknown factors, although in one way this but proves history's kinship with, and practical application for, the other social studies. Certainly in current politics or economics not all the elements can be evaluated, or even ascertained. American history cannot purport to be the *complete* story of our nation, but it can and should serve (in Allan Nevins' comparison)⁵ as a sort of compass and sextant by which mankind—and particularly that portion of it engaged in the study of society—can obtain some idea of its present position and some sense of the direction in which it is moving. A feeling of continuity is as essential in considering American institutions as it is in the lives of all individuals who are not amnesia victims. If individuals learn by experience, the same thing holds true (even if perhaps more slowly) for institutions.

We need not concern ourselves unduly here over the time-worn controversy as to whether history is a science or an art. In the opinion of these writers it is, and should be, both. The good teacher and the careful text-book author use the methods of science—critically, painstakingly and continually testing hypotheses—

in reconstructing the past fully as much as does the zoologist who puts together the skeleton of some prehistoric monster. History, American or any other kind, treats with facts some of which can be proved as truly as any law of mathematics or chemistry. Yet it differs from the physical sciences in that the facts with which it deals are *intelligible* ones. There is perhaps some irony in that the only things mankind can ever really understand are those which are constantly changing and can never be entirely known, whereas the immutable truths of so-called "pure" science are only data or expressions of natural laws beyond human comprehension. (Why, for illustration, must two and two *always* equal four?)

But history is also an art in that the facts and personalities which are available may be presented in an infinite variety of ways and that differing emphases may be placed upon them. History is both a science and an art when it demonstrates the fallacies which exist in trying to determine what *should* have been rather than what actually *was*, and shows the dangers in making oversimple generalizations to explain complex social phenomena.⁶ The observer in the social studies fields is ignoring a most potent ally if he fails to realize that this quality of history, the scientific and the artistic, affords him a visual acuity and depth of perception and fusion comparable to that of the function of the two eyes in the human head.

And, as we have already seen, American history is intimately related to every other branch of the social studies. In its appreciation of leadership and achievement, in its accentuation upon human rights, history recognizes the significance of the individual. Its consideration of religious, ethnic, economic and social factors make it invaluable in any study of social groups. Its stress on change and progress, on politics and planning, and on the integration of past experience render it indispensable to the understanding of the communities in which pupils and instructors alike must participate. Incontestably then, the social studies teacher owes it to himself and his students to keep abreast of developments in an area of such vital concern.

LITERATURE AND INTERPRETATIONS

Fortunately, a number of superb guides and

handbooks are available for an understanding of American history. Most college texts⁷ give in their bibliographies good summaries of major interpretations and much of the leading literature in the field. The *Dictionary of American History*,⁸ the *Dictionary of American Biography*,⁹ and, of course, the *Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences*¹⁰ are of infinite worth to the seeker after information or the person who wants to fix social problems within their proper frame of reference. The *Album of American History*¹¹ can prove a fascinating aid to civics students interested in the drafting and operation of the Constitution, or to economics pupils concerned with such matters as currency inflation or the effects of industrialization.

For an over-all guide into nearly all phases and problems of American history, the social studies teacher can scarcely do better than *The Study and Teaching of American History*,¹² which appeared in 1947 as the Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies. This worthwhile volume indicates what qualified teachers deem to be the functions of American history in the world today, the more recent emphases and interpretations in the field, some of its methods, relationships with other subjects and means used in evaluation. Along with this work, the little volumes by Louis Gottschalk on *Understanding History*¹³ and Homer Hockett on *Introduction To Research in American History*¹⁴ will do much to acquaint one with some of the techniques and problems which present themselves. Allan Nevins' *Gateway to History*, referred to above, provides a glimpse of the working philosophy of one of our more eminent national historians. Emery Neff's *The Poetry of History*¹⁵ discusses history as a science, but underlines its kinship with the humanities and indicates its intellectual facets.

Of journals there are an infinite number and variety. Possibly the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review* is the best scholarly periodical devoted to American history, but *Current History* and the *American Historical Review* have many articles in the area, and the book reviews alone in the latter publication will do a great deal to keep one abreast of what is developing. Regional and special-interest his-

torical periodicals abound; the *Journal of Southern History* is an outstanding example. The new popular historical magazine—*American Heritage*—should go a long way toward convincing both you and your students that history is anything but stuffy and that it does have applications in the other social studies areas.

In history as in most other fields new interpretations are not necessarily better ones. But frequently they are improvements, and always they offer rich possibilities. To the writers of this article some of the more recent trends constitute extremely hopeful signs and viewpoints which should add considerably to the utility of the subject to all social studies teachers.

Perhaps the most significant tendency in collegiate history is the heartening emphasis on the problem approach in studying the nation's career. In a number of instances it has been used to give point to the ancient mission of getting students acquainted with source materials. As the editors of *Problems in American History* put it, the most meaningful source readings are those which afford contrasting views on significant controversies and happenings.¹⁶ That particular volume is organized around twenty major problems in the story of the United States, each one of them introduced, organized and presented by an expert in the particular area concerned. The purpose is "to challenge the reader and stimulate independent thought"—certainly desirable enough objectives.

Somewhat similar in approach but more detailed in coverage and more limited in scope are the two paper-bound books dealing with the American portion of Henry Holt and Company's series of *Select Problems in Historical Interpretation*.¹⁷ Each of these volumes is centered around what its editors regard as the dominant theme in its respective period. There are splendid introductions to the important phases of the themes, and occasional modern estimates of the problems accompany the contemporary speeches, articles and legislation. The emphasis is on social and economic issues.

Also valuable and in wide usage is a series of even smaller, inexpensive productions in the D. C. Heath *Problems in American Civilization*

series.¹⁸ With readings selected by the Department of American Studies in Amherst College, eighteen of these booklets—they are hardly more—have already appeared. Each deals with a significant sphere of interpretation in American history, and the selection of sources and of modern essays on the specific issue involved make them extremely adaptable to class discussion or for pursuing further some of the questions raised by more conventional texts. The topics treated—pragmatism, collective bargaining, higher education, and loyalty in a democratic state are samples—have peculiar pertinence to all social studies teachers. This approach offers tremendous possibilities, though one may be permitted a mild skepticism concerning the publisher's claim that it will "guarantee independent thinking."

For emphasis on political science and ideas there is Alpheus T. Mason's *Free Government in the Making: Readings in Political Thought*,¹⁹ and for our nation's part in foreign relations and the question of "one world" there is R. J. Bartlett's *Record of American Diplomacy*,²⁰ as well as several volumes and pamphlets recently issued by the Department of State.²¹

Somewhat more traditional collections of sources are *Documents of American History* by Henry Steele Commager,²² *The Shaping of the American Tradition* by Louis M. Hacker,²³ *The Heritage of America* by Commager and Allan Nevins,²⁴ *The People Shall Judge* by the University of Chicago Social Studies Staff,²⁵ Commager's *Living Ideas in America*,²⁶ and the excellent two volume collection in *The Making of American Democracy* by Ray Billington and others.²⁷

There is an increasing interest in historiography, noticeable as far back as the Jernegan essays on the subject,²⁸ and growing with the works of Michael Kraus²⁹ and of several biographers of great American historians.³⁰ In keeping with this is the novel idea brought forth in *The Making of American History*.³¹ Here editor Donald Sheehan has presented especially famous interpretations in the field by means of selected passages from the pens of the outstanding historians themselves, in order that the student may make first-hand acquaintance with the ideas and styles that have influenced American historical thought.

The geographer can rejoice in the growing emphasis on geographical factors and the stress on maps in studying American history. Ralph H. Brown's *Historical Geography of the United States*³² is a meaningful recognition of this trend. New map projections, such as those used in *Time* and *Fortune* magazines, and time and distance charts are used more frequently. Certain newer college texts, such as *The Stream of American History*³³ and (in the area of the frontier) Billington's *Westward Expansion*,³⁴ have black and white spot maps—often unusual ones—to be found every few pages. Those desirous of learning the possible uses to which historical maps can be put should glance at the strikingly unique ones in the Curti-Shryock-Cochran-Harrington volumes of *An American History*.³⁵

For a number of years many historians were convinced that the colonial portion of America's story was being sadly neglected.³⁶ To a degree this may still be true, but the efforts of a host of recent writers³⁷ are remedying the situation. It is thus growing increasingly less likely that the conscientious textbook writer and the serious teacher will in any way slight this important period.

Perhaps as an outgrowth of World War II and the current tension with Russia, growing attention is being devoted to military history. To some this may seem a swinging back of the pendulum, but wars are a part—even though only a part—of a nation's life, despite the fact that for some decades historians passed them over in comparatively cursory fashion. The last few years have seen several excellent books on the action and logistics of the American Revolution,³⁸ the War of 1812,³⁹ and the Mexican conflict,⁴⁰ together with a veritable deluge concerning the Civil War.⁴¹ Several of the latter—particularly Bruce Catton's fascinating volumes on the Army of the Potomac⁴² and Henry Steele Commager's splendid anthology of the struggle⁴³—paint the picture as it appeared in the eyes of the combatants of the time. The rash of volumes in connection with World War II is perhaps to be expected, but already that holocaust is one of the best analyzed and most thoroughly-treated events in all history. Official unit and branch accounts (Samuel E. Morison's

chronicle of the navy's accomplishments⁴⁴ is perhaps the outstanding example) insure that America's participation is covered in detail.

In social and economic history the accentuation of fairly recent years appears to be continuing. *The History of American Life* series has been completed with a work on the depression era.⁴⁵ New volumes are appearing in *The Economic History of the United States*,⁴⁶ and several productions testify to sustained interest in the perennial "farm problem."⁴⁷ Of concern to all in the social studies should be a number of recent business histories, explaining and sometimes defending the role of money, industry and corporations in American life.⁴⁸

Even more emphasized of late have been the cultural and intellectual aspects of America's record. Some teachers and texts have had a tendency to steer shy of the nebulous and intangible factors in our annals, but there are many writers who are beginning to chart these seas. Such titles as *Social Thought in America*,⁴⁹ *The American Mind*⁵⁰ and the two volumes of *Society and Thought in America*⁵¹ are highly indicative. The goal here seems to be to relate ideas with actual institutions; if ideas are to have meaning we must show their influence, rather than merely discuss concepts in a vacuum. It may be that teachers in this area can commence with significant thinking and with great books, and then demonstrate how these were influenced by, and how they influenced, their environments. Oliver W. Larkin's *Art and Life in America*⁵² shows the relationship between art and history, and Marshall Davidson's *Life in America*⁵³ gives additional illustrative meaning to days gone by.

These and other modern viewpoints and tendencies can of course be only hinted at here. The reader who is interested in recent developments in American historiography should consult the article by Carleton C. Qualey on "Recent Scholarship and Interpretations in American History,"⁵⁴ together with the chapters on the same general subject in *The Study and Teaching of American History*, already referred to.⁵⁵

Note must be taken, however, of the burgeoning concern with sectional and local history.

Such works as the cooperative *A History of the South*,⁵⁶ the *American Regions*⁵⁷ and *Lakes of America*⁵⁸ series, Buley's Pulitzer-Prize winning *The Old Northwest*,⁵⁹ and individual volumes on such areas as the Pacific Northwest,⁶⁰ are illustrative of this inclination. The frontier continues to exert a strong appeal for many, although a number of tenets of the famed "Turner thesis" have been called into question.⁶¹ Instead of being apologetic about sectionalism in the United States, the contributors to *Regionalism in America*⁶² offer evidence to support the thought that it has been responsible for many of the nation's past accomplishments and affords considerable hope for the future. Several pamphlets and articles have demonstrated the potentialities of local history as a means of stimulating student interest in both high and elementary school, providing laboratory experience in the historical method, and affording opportunities for understanding and integrating the study of all phases of community life.⁶³

Most valuable of all trends in appealing to the secondary school student has been the sustained attention devoted to American biography. Few persons are so dull that they fail to relish a good story, and biography is one of the most interesting ways of learning history. It gives its reader a sense of participation in movements and events, and the skillful author and teacher can make it extremely meaningful. The Pulitzer Prizes give eloquent testimony to the excellent work being done in this sphere, and since more and more care is being taken to depict the "whole man," the works are often superlative pictures of the conditions and social forces for an entire generation. Librarian friends have provided assurance that for some years past the outstanding literary productions have been largely in the area of American biography. Some of these volumes are revisionist and a few are whitewashing in nature (as if to show that certain traditional *bêtes noires* have been maligned or were genial old rascals after all), but a very great number are exceedingly worthwhile.⁶⁴ The province of biography is not the exclusive possession of the historian, however; teachers of literature, economics, psychology and government may find here rich sources of assistance at their disposal.

Indubitably, the teacher of American history is growing constantly more appreciative of the ties between his subject and other fields. This can be seen in the use of such books as Leonard D. White's *The Federalists* and *The Jeffersonians*,⁶⁵ which are primarily studies in public administration, but which are excellent history as well. Of significance is the widespread interest in collegiate general education programs and the use of United States history as a core subject in high school and junior college civilization courses. The increasing utilization of panels, conferences and discussions in classroom history teaching all bear witness to the fundamental kinship of the social studies and disclose means and methods by which instructors in each of them may coordinate them and learn from the others. Particularly promising in the effort to achieve a better understanding of the country in which we live is the development of the newly formed American Studies Association. Through regional societies and co-operation with such professional groups as the Modern Language Association, the American Sociological Society, and the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, this organization intends to promote the study of American civilization by "communication across the established disciplines about the various aspects of America."⁶⁶

In dealing with domestic questions the capable teacher is attempting to underline changes in the thinking and behavior of the people of the nation, to stress movements and developments rather than a mass of mere facts. Areas or segments of America's annals, to be intelligible and useful, must be shown in balanced relationship to the whole. It has been suggested that ideally history teachers should have only students fifty years of age or older, because not until then do men possess perspective and a real interest in social problems.⁶⁷ Under present conditions this is scarcely practical, but all social studies teachers have a vital concern in seeing that their pupils acquire at least a degree of these attributes.

Finally, there is the problem of infinite moment to all of us—the place of the United States and its citizens in world perspective. Democracy today faces problems which are

global, and here again the American historian is aware of the situation. We have noted already that new sources are being presented in American diplomacy. Such recent volumes as Samuel F. Bemis' *John Quincy Adams and the Foundations of American Foreign Policy*,⁶⁸ Thomas Bailey's *Man in the Street*,⁶⁹ and Julius Pratt's *America's Colonial Experiment*,⁷⁰ show our reactions to conditions outside the continent. Recent collections of travelers' accounts,⁷¹ and volumes by foreign observers,⁷² afford us the inestimable advantage of seeing ourselves as others have seen or may still see us. Several textbooks place weight upon European and other foreign factors in our background, and the works appearing in the *American Foreign Policy Library*⁷³ are throwing light on our evolving positions with respect to specific countries abroad. At least one collegiate text⁷⁴ has made an effort to deal with the nation's history in its world background, and several others picture the United States as an integral part of the story of the Western Hemisphere.⁷⁵ All these may combat the widespread feeling of frustration and despair afflicting so many persons in today's world. They may help to prevent a reactionary tendency to remain suspiciously aloof from other nations or to cease cooperation with world peace organizations. Nor need history make fatalists of our students. Those teachers who require an antidote for pessimism may find it in such accounts of America as Gerald W. Johnson's *Incredible Tale*.⁷⁶

It may sober many of us to realize that while change is unavoidable, the rate of change appears to be constantly accelerating more rapidly. American history discloses that today's citizen of fifty has had to make more sweeping adaptations within his lifetime than did all previous generations of Americans put together. Yet this is true in the natural as well as in the social sciences, and it is a condition which we could not alter if we would. If it be true that "adaptation is the price of survival"⁷⁷ —in communications, business, political relationships and social institutions—the proper study of American history will be of priceless benefit to persons in all branches of the social studies.

¹ Howard R. Anderson, "Summary of Recommendations for Teachers and Administrators," in Richard E. Thursfield, ed., *The Study and Teaching of American History* (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, c. 1947), p. 433.

² *Ibid.*, p. 432.

³ Richard E. Gross, "What's Wrong With American History?" *Social Education*, XVI (April, 1952), pp. 157-161.

⁴ *New York Times*, June 21, 1942; April 4, 5, 6, 1943.

⁵ Allan Nevins, *Gateway to History* (New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938), p. 3.

⁶ For a development of this, see Louis B. Gottschalk, *On Understanding History* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1951), pp. 8-10, 30-31, 210-211; and Robert M. McIver, "The Social Sciences," in *On Going to College* (New York: Oxford Univ. Press, 1938), p. 104.

⁷ E.g., Luther D. Baldwin, *The Stream of American History*, 2 vols. (New York: American Book Co., 1952); Samuel E. Morison and Henry S. Commager, *The Growth of the American Republic*, 2 vols. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1950); and Harry J. Carman and Harold C. Syrett, *A History of the American People*, 2 vols. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1952).

⁸ James T. Adams, ed., 5 vols. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1940).

⁹ Allen Johnson and Dumas Malone, eds., 21 vols., plus supplements (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1929-1944).

¹⁰ Edwin R. A. Seligman, ed., 15 vols. (New York: Macmillan Co., 1930-1938).

¹¹ James T. Adams, ed., 5 vols. (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951).

¹² Richard E. Thursfield, ed. (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1947).

¹³ New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1951.

¹⁴ New York: Macmillan, 1948.

¹⁵ New York: Columbia University Press, 1947.

¹⁶ Richard W. Leopold and Arthur S. Link, eds., *Problems in American History* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1952), p. v.

¹⁷ David M. Potter and Thomas M. Manning, eds., 2 vols. (New York: Henry Holt, 1949-1950).

¹⁸ Earl Latham, et al., eds., 18 vols. (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948-1952).

¹⁹ New York: Oxford University Press, 1949.

²⁰ New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1947.

²¹ Department of State Publications of particular interest should be: *United States Relations with China* (No. 3573; Aug. 1949); *In Quest of Peace and Security* (No. 4245; Oct. 1951); *U. S. Policy in the Korean Conflict* (No. 4263; Sept. 1951); and *Our Foreign Policy*, 1952 (No. 4466; Mar. 1952). All are obtainable from the Division of Publications, Office of Public Affairs, U. S. Department of State.

²² New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1948.

²³ 2 vols. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1947).

²⁴ Boston: Little, Brown & Co., rev. ed., 1949.

²⁵ 2 vols. (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1949).

²⁶ Henry Steele Commager, ed. (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951).

²⁷ Ray A. Billington, Bert J. Loewenberg and Samuel H. Brockunier, eds., *The Making of American Democracy: Readings and Documents*; 2 vols. (New York: Rinehart & Co., 1950).

²⁸ William T. Hutchinson, ed., *The Marcus W. Jernegan Essays in American Historiography* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937).

²⁹ Michael Kraus, *The History of American History* (New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1937).

³⁰ See the article by Carlton C. Qualey, "Recent Biographies in American History," *Social Education*, XV (November, 1951), pp. 320-322.

³¹ Donald Sheehan, ed., 2 vols. (New York: Dryden Press, 1950).

³² New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1948.

³³ By Luther D. Baldwin, 2 vols. (New York: American Book Co., 1952).

³⁴ Ray A. Billington, *Westward Expansion* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1949).

³⁵ Merle Curti, et al., *An American History*, 2 vols. (New York: Harper Bros., 1950).

³⁶ Carl Bridenbaugh, "The Neglected First Half of American History," *American Historical Review*, LIII (April, 1948), pp. 506-517.

³⁷ Thomas J. Wertenbaker, *The Founding of American Civilization Series* (*The Middle Colonies; The Old South; The Puritan Oligarchy*), (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1938, 1942, 1947).

³⁸ Max Savelle, *Seeds of Liberty: The Genesis of the American Mind* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1948).

³⁹ Roy V. Coleman, *First Frontier* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948); *Liberty and Property* (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951).

⁴⁰ Lawrence H. Gipson, *The British Empire Before the American Revolution*, 7 vols. (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1946-1949).

⁴¹ See also the condensation of Francis Parkman's writings in John W. Tebbel, ed., *The Battle for North America* (New York: Doubleday & Co., 1948).

⁴² Lynn Montross, *Rag, Tag and Bobtail* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1952); Williard M. Wallace, *Appeal to Arms* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1951); Alfred Hoyt Bill, *Valley Forge* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1952). See also Douglas S. Freeman, *George Washington, IV (Leader of the Revolution)*, (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1951).

⁴³ Francis F. Beirne, *The War of 1812* (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1949).

⁴⁴ Robert S. Henry, *The Story of the Mexican War* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1950); Alfred Hoyt Bill, *Rehearsal for Conflict* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1940).

⁴⁵ E.g., Kenneth P. Williams, *Lincoln Finds a General*, 2 vols. (New York: Macmillan Co., 1949); T. Harry Williams, *Lincoln and His Generals* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1952); Earl S. Miers, *The General Who Marched to Hell* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1951); and a number of biographies of individual military leaders.

⁴⁶ Bruce Catton, *Mr. Lincoln's Army* (New York: Doubleday & Co., 1951); *Glory Road* (New York: Doubleday & Co., 1952).

⁴⁷ Henry Steele Commager, ed., *The Blue and the Gray*; 2 vols. (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1950).

⁴⁸ Samuel E. Morison, *History of United States Naval Operations in World War II*, 7 vols. to date (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1947-on).

⁴⁹ Dixon Wecter, *The Age of the Great Depression, 1929-1941* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1948).

⁵⁰ Henry David, et al., eds., *The Economic History of the United States*; 9 vols. (New York: Rinehart & Co., 1945-). The most recent volumes are George R. Taylor, *Transportation Revolution, 1815-1860* (1951); and Harold U. Faulkner, *The Decline of Laissez-Faire, 1897-1917* (1951).

⁵¹ Theodore Saloutos and John D. Hicks, *Agricultural Discontent in the Middle West 1900-1939* (Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1951); Leonard H. Schoff, *National Agricultural Policy* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1950); and Earle D. Ross, *Iowa Agriculture* (Iowa City: State Historical Society of Iowa, 1951).

⁵² E.g., Ralph W. Hidy, *The House of Baring in American Trade and Finance* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, 1949); Carl Coke Rister, *Oil Titan of the Southwest* (Norman: Okla.: University of Oklahoma Press, 1949); Marquis James, *Metropolitan Life: A Study in Business Growth* (New York:

Viking Press, 1947); Lloyd Lewis and S. M. Pargellis, eds., *Granger Country* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1949); James L. Marshall, *Santa Fe, the Railroad that Built an Empire* (New York: Random House, 1945); and Edward C. Kirkland, *Men, Cities and Transportation: A Study in New England History, 1820-1900* (Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University, 1948).

⁴⁹ Morton J. White, *Social Thought in America: The Revolt Against Formalism* (New York: Viking Press, 1949).

⁵⁰ Henry S. Commager, *The American Mind* (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950).

⁵¹ Harvey Wish, *Society and Thought in Early America* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1950); *Society and Thought in Modern America* (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1952).

⁵² New York: Rinehart & Co., 1949.

⁶³ 2 vols. (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1951).

⁵⁴ *Social Education*, XV (May, 1951), pp. 217-22, 238.

⁵⁵ See f.n. 13.

⁵⁶ W. H. Stephenson and E. M. Coulter, eds., 10 vols. (Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1947-).

⁵⁷ Erskine Caldwell, ed., *American Folkways Series* (New York: Duell, Sloan & Pearce, 1941-).

⁵⁸ Milo M. Quaife, ed., *American Lakes Series* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co., 1944-). See also *Rivers of America Series* (N. Y.: Rinehart).

⁵⁹ R. Carlyle Buley, *The Old Northwest: Pioneer Period, 1815-1840*, 2 vols. (Bloomington, Ind., University of Indiana, 1951).

⁶⁰ Stewart Holbrook, *Far Corner* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1952); Oscar O. Winther, *The Great Northwest* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1947).

⁶¹ See James A. Frost, "The Frontier Influence—A Perspective," *Social Education*, XII (November, 1948); pp. 361-363; and the volume in the Heath series mentioned above (f.n. 19) by George R. Taylor, ed., *The Turner Thesis* (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1949).

⁶² Merrill B. Jensen, ed., *Regionalism in America* (Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1951). See also Howard W. Odum and K. C. Jocher, eds., *In Search of the Regional Balance of America* (Chapel Hill, N. C.: University of N. C., 1945).

⁶³ E.g., see the booklet by Donald D. Parker, *Local History* (New York: Social Science Research Council, 1944); and the articles by Ralph Adams Brown in *Social Studies* and *Social Education* between January and May, 1952.

⁶⁴ Those interested will find the article by Carlton C. Qualey, cited in f.n. 31, above, particularly helpful. See also: Ralph A. Brown and Marian R. Brown, "The Social Studies Teacher and American Biography," *Social Studies*, XLIII (Jan., 1952), pp. 10-20.

⁶⁵ Leonard D. White, *The Federalists* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1949); *The Jeffersonians* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1951).

⁶⁶ Quotation from a prospectus for the American Studies Association; Robert Land, Sec.-Treas. of the A.S.A., Library of Congress, Washington 25, D. C.

⁶⁷ See Max S. Marshall, "Hardly My Affair: Teaching History," *School and Society*, LXXIII (Dec. 1, 1951), pp. 337-341.

⁶⁸ New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1949.

⁶⁹ Thomas A. Bailey, *The Man in the Street* (New York: Macmillan Co., 1948).

⁷⁰ Julius W. Pratt, *America's Colonial Experiment* (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950); this is a defense of American policy.

⁷¹ See Carlton C. Qualey, "Recent Scholarship and Interpretations in American History," *Social Education*, XV (May, 1951), p. 218, f.n.

⁷² An example is Geoffrey Gorer, *The American People* (New York: W. W. Norton Co., Inc., 1948).

⁷³ Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University; two volumes of particular interest are John K. Fairbank, *The United States and China* (1948); and Vera M. Dean, *The United States and Russia* (1947).

⁷⁴ John B. Rae and Thomas W. D. Mahoney, *The United States in World History*, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1949).

⁷⁵ Robert S. Cotterill, *Short History of the Americas* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1945); John F. Bannon, *History of the Americas*, 2 vols. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952); Vera B. Holmes, *A History of the Americas* (New York: Ronald Press, 1950).

⁷⁶ New York: Harper & Bros., 1950.

⁷⁷ Lewis Paul Todd, "Editor's Page," *Social Education*, XV, (Oct. 1951), p. 265.

A Brief History of OPS (Two Years of Price Control)

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Environment For Controls: In June of 1950 our country was enjoying peace and economic prosperity. We were producing at nearly full capacity. Long awaited consumers goods were readily available. Incomes were at a high level and consumers were spending generously. In addition, many were taking advantage of available credit to increase their purchases of commodities. The price level which reached a peak in 1948 had stabilized and was beginning to decline—a break for the consumers.

With the outbreak of hostilities in Korea on June 25, 1950 the price situation changed rapidly. Within a period of six months prices of basic commodities rose almost 50 per cent, farm prices about 16 per cent, and industrial prices 14 per cent. The cost of living as measured by the Consumer's Price Index moved from 170.2 to 178.8, while the Wholesale Price Index jumped from 157.3 to 175.3 during this period.

The cause of this inflationary movement is

axiomatic. A nation using all its resources primarily to produce consumer's goods and services cannot undertake a greatly expanded defense program without curtailing production of civilian goods. Such curtailment usually results in shortages. When incomes continue at high levels and shortages exist the prices of available civilian goods are bid-up. However, even before the shortages occurred in our economy, the reactions of consumers and businessmen to anticipated shortages caused prices to rise. The demand for goods was intensified, and scare buying and profiteering kindled the fires of inflation. As prices rose, the cost of production increased stimulating pressure for further and broader price increases.

It soon became evident that inflationary pressures would continue as our security program expanded. We began defense spending at an annual rate of \$20 billion and by the end of 1951 we expected to be spending between \$45 to \$55 billion for this purpose, which would be equivalent to one-fifth of our national output. As the program materialized more and more of our resources were to be diverted to the production of military goods. Simultaneously, we would need to expand our labor force, which in turn would increase spendable income. This would result in a continually growing gap between the demand for consumer's goods and the available supply.

Such a situation is dangerous because it is extremely conducive to inflation and if inflation is not checked it perpetuates itself and grows more acute and dangerous. Inflation prevents a smooth functioning of our economy by disrupting production and the proper flow of goods and services. It destroys the value of savings and the motivation to save, and incites a flight from liquid assets to goods, all of which leads to increased spending. It weakens the defense effort by adding billions to the cost of defense and to the cost of living for the American public.

Failure of Indirect Controls: In the early months of the Korean conflict indirect and voluntary measures were suggested to keep prices down. Businessmen, laborers, farmers, and consumers were admonished to exercise restraint in an attempt to reduce the level of

demand. It was hoped that with increased production we could eventually strike a balance which would give adequate support to our security program and still fulfil consumers' needs. But in the interim something had to be done to counteract the inflationary situation.

Recognizing the dangers that lay ahead, Congress approved the Defense Production Act, September 8, 1950, which among other things authorized price and wage stabilization. The act authorized the President to encourage and promote voluntary action by business, agriculture, labor and consumers toward obtaining stability. He was authorized also to issue regulations and orders establishing ceilings on the prices of various materials and services. The next day President Truman signed Executive Order 10161 establishing the Economic Stabilization Agency, which was to include an Office of Price Stabilization. However, a Director of Price Stabilization was not appointed until November 30, 1950.

In the months immediately following the passage of the act the government sought to stabilize prices by general measures and voluntary action. It increased taxes, imposed selective credit restrictions, and established control over the flow of scarce materials. In spite of this, prices continued to rise, especially following the Chinese intervention in Korea.

On December 18, 1950 the newly created ESA issued Ceiling Price Regulation 1 as the first direct step toward achieving stabilization. This regulation put a temporary 90-day freeze on prices charged by manufacturers of new passenger automobiles. The prices charged on December 1 became ceiling prices. This necessitated a roll-back by some manufacturers who had increased their prices approximately five per cent between December 1 and 18. The purpose of the freeze was to permit ESA to make an analysis of the industry to determine whether or not cost increases justified price increases. After completing the study CPR 1 was amended on March 1, 1951 to permit manufacturers to increase their ceiling prices by 3½ per cent.

The day following the automobile price freeze ESA published a set of Voluntary Pricing Standards as a guide to aid sellers

who desired to cooperate in a program of voluntary price stabilization. In addition, hundreds of large firms were requested to give advanced notice of any intended price increases, and discussion were held among producers of basic commodities to analyze methods of stabilizing prices. Although some sellers and manufacturers, motivated by patriotism, did attempt to comply with the objectives of the voluntary stabilization program many prices continued to soar. In fact, during the following month the prices of basic commodities and foods advanced at a greater rate than they had during any of the previous six months. By the end of January 1951 the Consumer's Price Index had reached 182. It became imperative that forceful action be taken. Voluntary, partial, and indirect measures had failed to meet the challenge of inflation.

The General Freeze: The first major step in the direct fight against inflation was the issuance of the General Ceiling Price Regulation (GCPR) on January 26, 1951. This was essentially a stop-gap measure designed as a broad, sweeping action to halt the upward spiral of prices. Its purpose was to hold prices over the entire economy until more adequate regulation could be issued. This emergency measure froze prices for all covered commodities and services at the highest level at which they were sold, or offered for sale, during the base period, December 19, 1950 to January 25, 1951. The choice of this base period was dictated by considerations of administrative practicability. Each seller was required to calculate ceiling prices for all commodities sold. Although it was not necessary to post these ceiling prices, or even report them to OPS, all were obliged to prepare and keep available for examination by the agency a list showing prices charged for all commodities during the base period. Each seller was also required to keep available a record of his current prices.

GCPR provided for relief or adjustment of ceiling process in only two instances: (1) Ceilings established for agricultural commodities were not to be below the highest of the following: (a) the parity price for such commodity, or (b) the highest price received by producers during the period May 24, to June

24, 1950; and (2) Importers were permitted to pass on certain price increases.

Subsequently more than 100 Supplementary Regulations to GCPR have been issued, plus a multitude of amendments. All of these deal with particular situations arising for those who continue to price under GCPR. Probably the most noted of these is SR 29 issued May 28, 1951. This regulation accomplished two objectives: (1) it provided for a follow-through at the wholesale and retail level for price changes on manufactured goods authorized under the general manufacturing regulation (CPR 22) issued April 25, 1951; and (2) it provided for alleviation of certain "replacement squeezes" resulting from pricing under GCPR.¹

Shortly after GCPR was issued other Ceiling Price Regulations began to appear. In general, these regulations superseded GCPR. Their purpose was to remove certain commodities and service from pricing under the general regulation and to bring them under regulations specifically tailored to the market structure of the respective commodity. This proved to be a more satisfactory and equitable approach to control.

Mark-up or Marginal Type Controls: It was recognized that a freeze type regulation, such as GCPR, was not well adapted to certain branches of retail trade. Retailers deal in a vast assortment of commodities. Because of the pricing difficulties involved under a freeze type regulation, it was decided to employ a more appropriate method. Thus, CPR 7 established a mark-up or marginal type of price control. It contained a formula for calculating the percentage mark-up over cost allowable to the seller. Each retailer covered by the regulation was obligated to use mark-ups based upon his own previous experience. The mark-ups permitted were those existing on a list date, which for purposes of the regulation was February 24, 1951. The retailer was required to prepare a pricing chart showing the selling price and percentage mark-up of each item he sold on the list date. A copy of the chart was filed with OPS, and the selling price listed on the chart became the ceiling price for the particular commodity. However, if the net cost of an item subsequently changed, the mark-up listed on

the pricing chart was to be applied to the new net cost to determine the new ceiling price. Therefore, the emphasis was on stabilizing the mark-up.

The next regulations of widespread importance were the "dry grocery" regulations. CPR 14, 15 and 16 established price ceilings for wholesale and retail grocers. They govern approximately sixty percent of the food purchases made by consumers. Instead of permitting the grocer to use mark-ups based on his own previous experience, these regulations listed the mark-ups to be used. Mark-ups were given for 36 different classes of commodities. The mark-ups necessarily differed between wholesalers and retailers, and between different groups of wholesalers and retailers. To facilitate matters wholesalers were divided into four classes. Because of the different services performed, each class was permitted to use different mark-ups. Retailers, likewise, were divided into four groups according to volume of trade. Recognizing the fact that large volume stores usually operate on smaller mark-ups than small volume stores, OPS granted higher mark-ups to the latter. Both wholesalers and retailers were required to apply the mark-up given in the regulation to the net cost of the most recent delivery of the commodity before the effective date of the regulation, which was April 30, 1951. Because of the flexibility in agriculture parity pricing, these regulations permit a weekly recalculation of ceiling prices. Retailers are required to display at all times the current selling price for each item of food covered by the regulations.

However, a community pricing program for retail grocers is scheduled to go into effect October 1, 1952. This system will establish dollar-and-cents ceilings for major market items. OPS will determine wholesale costs in each area and apply the necessary mark-ups to obtain uniform ceilings within a community. Ceiling prices for standard commodities will not vary from store to store as they do under the present system. Ceilings will be subject to change each week if the costs change.

Manufacturers Regulation—Cost-plus Principle: Another major step toward ironing out the inequities of the original freeze came with

the issuance of CPR 22, Manufacturers General Ceiling Price Regulation. In some industries prices had lagged behind the cost of materials and supplies, while in others prices were increased in anticipation of cost increases. Some firms attempting to cooperate with the stabilization effort had complied with Voluntary Pricing Standards while others continued to raise prices indiscriminately. To alleviate these inequities OPS intended to issue a series of regulations designed to meet the needs of the various industries. Consequently, CPR 22, covering manufacturers in general was issued as an interim measure to be replaced at a later date by regulations for specific industries.

The aim of CPR 22 was to return manufacturers prices to the pre-Korean level, but permit adjustment for certain subsequent material and labor cost increases. This in many cases provided roll backs from existing prices. A base period—April 1 to June 24, 1950—was established. The ceiling price for a commodity was equivalent to the base period price plus the "labor cost adjustment factor" and the "material cost adjustment factor."² This cost-plus principle was permitted only to a limited extent. December 31, 1950 (March 15, 1951 for some commodities) was designated as the cut-off date. Cost increases occurring after that date had to be absorbed by the manufacturer. This not only restricted the price-cost crescendo, but assumed that the average prices of materials would be stabilized at levels approximating those which prevailed in December, 1950.

All manufacturers covered were required to file their ceiling prices with the OPS Washington office by June 30, 1951. However, the amended Defense Production Act of 1951, which went into effect August 1, 1951 altered ceiling prices by permitting them to reflect cost changes, including overhead cost, up to July 26, 1951. Naturally, the adoption of this new cut-off date established a basis for higher ceiling prices. Furthermore, the inclusion of overhead cost changes, in addition to the labor and the material cost increase factors augmented the tendency toward higher ceiling prices. The necessary regulations for carrying out this so-called Capehart Amendment were not issued until November, 1951. Shortly after-

ward OPS received a deluge of applications for price increases. Through the first quarter of 1952 it had received more than 7000 applications for upward price adjustments.

CPR 22 was followed by several companion regulations which covered specific commodities or industries. CPR 30 established ceilings for machinery and related manufactured goods; CPR 37, cotton textiles; CPR 41, shoes; CPR 45, men's and women's apparel; CPR 18, previously issued, woolen yarns and fabrics. The pricing methods used under these regulations were substantially the same as those used in CPR 22. However, some exceptions were necessary because of the nature of specific industries.

Meat Regulations—Dollar & Cents Ceilings: Of utmost importance to the housewife were the meat regulations. CPR 23 controlled the prices of live cattle. It set-up the basis for roll-backs in beef prices by establishing a set of maximum prices which slaughterers were permitted to pay for live cattle. The first set became effective May 20, 1951, the second set, with prices about $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent lower was to become effective July 29, and a third reduction of the same amount was scheduled to go into effect September 30, 1952. The first roll-back was designed to maintain prices at about 135 per cent of parity; the second at 130 per cent; and the third at 120-25 of parity. CPR 24 and 25 were to follow through on the roll-back principle by listing dollar-and-cents prices for wholesale and retail beef for the corresponding periods of roll-backs in live cattle. The consumers received the benefit of the first roll-back, but, in extending the Defense Production Act on June 31, 1952, Congress forbade any further roll-backs in meat prices.

CPR 25 established dollar-and-cents retail ceiling prices by grades and cuts of beef. These ceiling prices differ slightly not only because of the zoning system but also as a result of store group classifications, which causes selling prices to differ within a particular area. Retail ceiling prices are also differentiated according to the grade of beef.³

The Quota System: The quota system established earlier by Distribution Orders 1 and 2 was held by OPS officials to be integral to the control of beef prices. They looked upon it as

a necessity to insure a fair division of the available livestock among legitimate slaughterers and to prevent irresponsible or illegitimate slaughterers from obtaining livestock and diverting it into blackmarkets. It was devised to assure each area of the country a fair share of the available meat supply, based upon its past consumption. All registered slaughterers were assigned a monthly quota of livestock, which was based on their 1950 slaughtering records. A total quota was set for the nation as a whole, and then individual quotas were adjusted accordingly. In any event all available livestock coming into the market was allocated among legitimate slaughterers.

Despite its use under the original controls bill, Congress did not completely agree with stabilization officials in regard to the merits of the quota. As a result the system was omitted from the new act which became effective August, 1951. Whether it was directly due to the elimination of the quota system is difficult to determine, but OPS reported an increasing amount of activity in blackmarkets during the autumn of 1951.

Administration: During a relatively short period OPS grew from a skeleton crew to a force of more than 12,000 employees. Within its organization are experts from the trades, business, and educational and professional levels. Within six months after a Director of Price Stabilization was appointed, thirteen Regional and eighty-four District offices were put into operation. Within a year after his appointment more than sixty separate Ceiling Price Regulations were issued, and at present there are approximately 150. Many of these have been modified by supplementary regulations. In addition, numerous General Overriding Regulations have been issued. The purpose of most GOR's is to exempt certain commodities, services or sales from price control. OPS has also organized several Industry Advisory Committees (IAC) composed of industrial leaders. These committees voluntarily analyze production, cost, and price conditions in order to make recommendations to OPS on pending regulation affecting their specific industries.

Thus far OPS has done a commendable job in its task of holding prices. During 1951 there

was a general leveling off of prices due in large part to the general freeze and subsequent price regulation. Late in 1951 and during the first half of 1952 economic forces of the market removed much of the inflationary pressure. The effectiveness of OPS in holding the price line, and the effect of market forces in stabilizing prices is reflected in the following chart.

Percentage Changes in BLS Indexes
June 1950 to June 1952

Consumers' Pre-Korea to GCPR to Dec. 1951 to
Price Index: GCPR (2/15/51) Dec. 1951 June 1952¹

Index & Group

All items	8.0%	2.9%	0.3%
Foods	11.1	2.7	-0.3
Apparel	9.1	2.4	-2.3
Housef'h'g.	13.2	0.2	-2.8
Fuel, Elec., Etc. ...	3.6	0.7	0.0

Wholesale Price Index:

All Commodities	16.8%	- 3.2%
Farm Prices	22.1	- 4.4
Foods	15.7	- 0.2
Bldg. Material	12.9	- 1.8
Textiles	32.2	-11.4
Chemicals	31.0	- 6.4
All Commodities		-1.9
Farm Prices		-3.6
Processed Foods		-1.8
Industrial		-3.4

¹ Percentage changes for wholesale prices based on revised index.

In the latter part of 1951 and the first half of 1952 there was considerable softening in our economy. Price declines were in evidence in certain sectors. The defense program which was running behind schedule was extended over a longer period. Instead of the anticipated \$55 billion, we produced \$37 billions in defense goods in 1951. However, the first quarter of 1952 revealed an annual production rate of \$47 billion for national security. Furthermore, personal savings increased from \$10.7 billion in 1950 to \$17.2 in 1951, and about the same rate is indicated for 1952. Percentagewise 9 per cent of disposable income was saved in 1951 compared to 4 per cent in 1950.

The heavy inflationary pressures expected in late 1951 and 1952 did not materialize.

Shortages predicted did not occur. Strengthening of consumer's resistance to high prices, obliteration of scare-buying, and accelerated debt repayment mitigated consumer demand. Business which had scheduled its production of consumers goods at high levels, in anticipation of increased demand, accumulated large, high priced inventories. Consequently, curtailment of production and widespread sales pervaded the economy in an attempt to improve inventory positions.

In 1952 government monetary measures were mollified or eliminated as the need for them disappeared. When the private demand for bank credit lessened in the early part of the year, both Regulation W, governing consumer installment credit, and the Voluntary Credit Restraint Program were suspended. Regulation X was also amended to permit lower down payments on the purchase of homes. Finally, the Defense Production Act of 1952, which became effective July 1, discontinued authority for Regulation W and for the Voluntary Credit Restraint Program. In addition, authority to control residential construction, through Regulation X, was made contingent upon the rate at which new houses were started.

In May of 1952 the National Production Authority predicted that there would be ample supplies of practically all consumers goods during the year. Durable consumers goods were plentiful. Even automobiles, which were expected to be scarce because of scheduled cutbacks in material allocations, were readily available during the first half of 1952. NPA also found it possible to free large quantities of basic commodities, such as aluminum and copper, for non-defense production. It began to appear that we had reached a point where we could have both guns and butter.

During the first half of 1952 prices were rather stable. The CPI moved from 189.1 in January to 189.6 in June. The WPI decreased from 113.0 to 111.6 for the same period. Farm prices fell from 300 to 292.

Under these conditions it became possible for OPS to begin carrying out its policy of suspending controls where they were no longer required. In April of 1952 suspension orders were issued for 16 raw materials; in May raw

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cotton and a large list of commodities at the manufacturer's level were suspended; and a third list was issued in June. The commodities suspended constituted 8 per cent of the items in the Wholesale Price Index, and had accounted for a large part of its decline. The suspensions were justified because the current market prices of these items were well below ceiling prices.

OPS adopted the following criterion to determine eligibility for suspension: (1) the market price of the commodity must be below the ceiling; and (2) there must be no prospect of a substantial price rise for the commodity in the immediate future. For emergency purposes each suspension order includes a specific "recontrol point." When the price of a suspended commodity reaches the "recontrol point" the former ceiling again becomes effective.

Current Status: Several months prior to June 30, 1952, the expiration date of the Defense Production Act of 1951, considerable pressure for complete removal of controls was being exerted upon Congress. Such organizations as the NAM and the U. S. Chamber of Commerce carried out extensive campaigns against the renewal of price controls. Several large manufacturers and scores of businessmen suggested modifications to the control program. Various bills were proposed and debated in Congress. At one time the House voted 211 to 185 for a bill which would have virtually removed the controls. However, Congress recognizing the continuing danger of inflation renewed the price and wage control sections of the act for ten months. But, in extending control legislation Congress adopted several amendments which further weakened the authority of OPS to hold prices down.

The most important price amendment was that exempting fresh and processed fruits and vegetables from control. These items amount to nearly 20 per cent of the average family food budget, or about 8 per cent of the total family budget. In recent months strong price pressures have appeared on these commodities. Other amendments establish higher prices for certain fertilizers; milk; some meat prices; and exempt incidental transportation charges by common carrier from control.

Another important Amendment to the act provides for the removal of rent control by September 30, except in critical defense housing areas and in communities where the local government requests continuation of rent controls.

Price controls were dealt two severe blows in July, 1952: (1) the government permitted a price increase in excess of \$5 per ton in order to settle the steel strike, which was about double the increase permitted under the Capehart Amendment; (2) as a result of a Congressional reduction in the appropriation for the stabilization program, OPS was forced to reduce its staff by one half by Sept. 1, 1952.

Although prices had been fairly stable for about a year, by mid-summer of 1952 it became apparent that the deflationary movement had been arrested, and that inflationary pressures were again at work. The cost of living at an all time high was expected to keep rising, but no runaway inflation was anticipated. The effects of the steel settlement were beginning to filter through the economy. Users of steel were requesting price increases to offset cost increases. Unions were formulating wage requests patterned after the grant given to steelworkers. Prices of fresh fruits and vegetables, which rose 13 per cent between mid-March and the end of May gave no indication of falling. Higher prices are expected for some commodities by fall because of the widespread summer droughts. More than 6,000,000 families in non-critical housing areas face the prospect of rent increase after September 30, unless local governments deem otherwise, and rent accounts for 12½ per cent of the average family budget, according to CPI calculations. To what extent these forces can engender an upward pressure on the cost of living remains to be seen. At any rate it appears that price controls, although considerably weakened, will again be useful in combating any inflationary tendency that may arise.

Increased defense production, request for wage and price increases, shortages of some crops, possible rent increases, and large holdings of liquid assets by the people are all threats to higher prices. There is also the possibility of an acceleration of military activity in Korea,

which would have a material and psychological impact on the economy and the price level. We are still in a very precarious position. It would not take much of a force to push the economy back into a highly inflationary condition. Therefore, there is a continued need for price and wage controls until these latent dangers of inflation pass. As the danger lessens, which it had been doing up to mid-summer of 1952 and which it may continue to do when this present inflationary spurt recedes, we can substitute stronger indirect controls for direct controls. But, caution must be exercised in this process. A premature removal of complete controls can be hazardous. On the other hand, undue extension can have a damping influence on the level of economic activity. Timing is a problem of considerable magnitude. At this time the wisdom of OPS in following a policy of gradual suspension and decontrol cannot be disputed. Subsequent events tend to indicate that complete decontrol last June, as advocated by many, would have proven to be untimely.

¹ As GPCR was issued during a time when prices were increasing rapidly and irregularly, it froze prices for many distributors at levels which did not reflect

replacement costs. For example: If a retailer purchased a commodity for \$1.00 on December 1 and sold it for \$1.50 during the base period his ceiling price became \$1.50. If replacement purchases subsequent to January 25, 1951 cost him \$1.20 because the wholesaler had increased his selling price to \$1.20 during the base period, the retailer would be caught in a replacement squeeze. Buying at \$1.20 he still had to sell at \$1.50. SR 29 permitted a retailer in such a situation to recalculate his ceiling price to reflect the increased purchase price.

² The labor-cost adjustment was made as follows: (1) the "labor cost ratio" for 1950 was determined by dividing the net sales by factory payroll (e.g. net sales, \$500,000; payroll, \$200,000; labor cost ratio equals 40%); (2) the "wage" increase factor was then calculated by dividing the increase in payroll between June 24, 1950 and the cut-off date by the weekly payroll of June 24, 1950 (e.g. if weekly payroll on June 24, 1950 was \$1200, and the cost of meeting the same payroll was \$1300 on the cut-off date, the "wage increase factor" was 8.3%); (3) the "labor cost adjustment factor" was then determined by multiplying the "labor cost ratio" by the "wage increase factor" (40% x 8.3% equals 3.3%); (4) the "labor cost adjustment factor" was then added to the highest base period selling price.

A similar process determined the "material cost adjustment factor," which was also added to the base period price. The manufacturer was actually given several alternative methods of determining the "material cost adjustment factor."

³ For example: The selling price for T-Bone per pound for Group 1 and 2 store in Zone 1 effective May 14, 1951 were: choice, \$1.31; good, \$1.10; commercial, \$.81; utility, \$.67. The ceiling price for the same cut T-Bone sold at Group 3 and 4 stores were: \$1.27; \$.81; \$.67; and \$.67 respectively.

Tale of Two Cities — With a Latin Flavor!

SAM H. JONES

Bret Harte High School, Mariposa, California

The festive spirit of Christmas was in the evening air as our train pulled into Hermosillo, the capital of the Mexican state of Sonora. We were tired. The trip from Mariposa, California had been an exciting and arduous one. But fatigue was soon forgotten. Although it was after 11 p.m., some twenty citizens of Hermosillo were gathered at the station to welcome us.

Both the male and female members of our party were embraced warmly in the Latin manner. Were we embarrassed? Not at all! As a matter of fact, the embrace seemed more friendly and sincere than our more reserved custom of shaking hands.

Perhaps this is a good place to go back a

ways and explain how we happened to be so far from home at Christmas time. About four years ago, the students in my Spanish classes at Mariposa High School agreed that a trip to Mexico would be a wonderful way to learn the language better and understand the people more fully.

We couldn't afford an expensive guided tour. Moreover, even had we had the money we would not have wanted to travel in that manner. We wanted to go down to Mexico as friends, not mere tourists. We desired to live in private homes as members of Mexican families, eat their food, speak their language and see things through their eyes.

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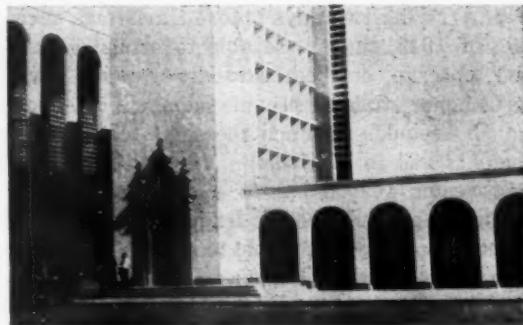
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The Old: horse-drawn cart



The New: Hermosillo's recently completed library-museum

Therefore, the next summer I traveled to Hermosillo to make the necessary contacts for a trip such as we planned. I arrived a complete stranger, but wherever I went I was received cordially. The principal of the high school, the secretary of the Chamber of Commerce and members of the Hermosillo Lions Club all assured me that homes would be available for our proposed visit.

TRIP PLANS CRYSTALLIZE

The beginning of the next school year saw our plans take more definite shape. Principal Cleo G. Adelsbach told the Mariposa Lions Club of our preparations to visit Mexico. Without a dissenting vote, the club voted three \$100 scholarships. This meant that the three top students in Spanish could make the trip with all expenses paid! With motivation such as this, the tempo of learning was stepped up appreciably. Incidentally, our Spanish texts¹ provided excellent lingual and cultural preparation.

As time went on, not only the community but the entire county became interested in the venture and supported it in various ways.

The three scholarship winners turned out to be Nancy Dye Ringrose, Harlene Sischo and Tom Carstens. They were joined by Joanne Stevens, Stewart Cramer and Dick Klein, who covered their own travel costs.

April 8, the departure date, finally crept around. We climbed into our Chevrolet Carryall, driven by Mr. Willbert Bailey, and began the first half of the 4,000-mile round trip.

Upon our arrival in Hermosillo, we were lodged in private homes as promised. A Mexican student of the same age and sex was assigned

as a companion to each American visitor. Together, these young people visited interesting portions of the city, played volleyball and basketball, taught one another songs and dances and compared customs.

The Mariposa students were permitted considerable personal freedom to explore areas of individual interest. This privilege was never abused and they conducted themselves in an exemplary manner at all times.

During an afternoon chat with the principal of Hermosillo High School, I extended an invitation to his students to come to Mariposa for a return visit. He shook his head sadly, saying he appreciated the invitation but his students were too poor to afford such a trip. As tactfully as I could, I asked how he would feel about the offer of scholarships from our students to his. Yes, he smiled, he would be very happy to accept such an offer.

CLUB RAISES SCHOLARSHIP MONEY

Our Spanish club started right off the next school year with fund-raising projects. As before, practically everyone in the county helped directly or indirectly. The club served Mexican meals in the cafeteria, co-sponsored a dance with the Mariposa Lions Club, showed a movie at the local theater and sold gift wrapping paper. Finally the money necessary for two travel scholarships was raised. Shortly before this, the Hermosillo Lions Club had written, informing us that they would pay the travel costs of a third student.

Two girls, Migdalia Martinez and Elodia Aguilar, and one boy, Jesús Robles, were selected by Hermosillo High School for the

trip. Arriving two days before Christmas vacation of 1949, they were able to attend classes and observe our educational system. These three honor students became members of American households in much the same manner our students had in Mexico.

It seems reasonable to assume that these young people will become leaders in their land. It seems equally reasonable to believe that their first-hand knowledge of our country will help them to approach issues involving Mexico and the United States with greater understanding.

Before leaving, our guests reminded us that the next year was our turn to visit their homeland. So it was that we found ourselves detraining at the Hermosillo depot that December evening in 1950. There were ten of us this time: four girls, four boys, Mr. Hamilton Bailey (colleague and assistant conductor of the trip) and I. The girls were Judy Johnstone, Frances Turner, Peggy Purcell and Anne Barrett. The boys were Ray Meline, Charles Rhoads, Malcolm Tresidder and Jack Meline.

We were taken into the hearts and homes of our Mexican friends even more than before. Almost the entire student body returned briefly from vacation to present a program of welcome. The governor placed a vehicle and a driver at our disposal for the duration of our stay. The Hermosillo Lions Club honored us with a banquet at one of the capital's modern hotels.

Occasionally our hosts had difficulty in understanding *our* customs. There was the afternoon, for example, when one of our young ladies dashed past several natives, pursued by our boys. Despite shrieks and resistance, she was seized, turned bottom up and soundly spanked. The Mexicans grinned politely when informed this was an old American birthday custom, then walked on with a puzzled air.

GROUP VISITS GOVERNOR'S MANSION

The visit to the governor's mansion was one of the high spots of the trip. As we sat in the spacious living room sipping light refreshment, Governor Ignacio Soto described his hopes for Sonora's future. "Sonora," he said, "is still very young." Only in the last ten years has real economic progress been made. Today there is a growing spirit of activity and internal development throughout the state.

In his quiet, sincere manner, the governor continued, "Do not be afraid to speak in our language for fear you will make mistakes and we will laugh at you. No. We will never do this." Then looking at each of his guests warmly, he added these words, "The moment you speak in my language a friendship begins."

As we said "Adios" to our gracious hosts we reminded them it would be *their* turn the coming year. Incidentally, the Mariposa Lions Club had contributed \$225 toward the costs of our second trip.

Have our students considered these trips worthwhile? This is how Peggy Purcell feels about it. "I believe that most of the people who think of Mexico picture it as the postcards show it. A little man with a large sombrero having his siesta under a tree while his grey donkey waits nearby is the usual thing. Well, it's hard to say what it's really like, but there is a great deal more to it than that. At times we were shown through beautifully constructed modern buildings, large libraries, nice air-conditioned theaters and civic buildings. On the other hand, we viewed squat little huts of mud, inhabited by people who made you wonder when and what they had eaten last. The astonishing thing to me was that no matter where we were taken, we found the same atmosphere of hospitality and friendliness."

ANY HIGH SCHOOL CAN TAKE A SIMILAR TRIP

Trips such as these are not as difficult to arrange as some might suppose. Moreover, the resultant benefits far outweigh the planning and responsibility involved. With the need for international understanding more urgent than ever, it is hoped that more schools will become interested in a similar undertaking. To facilitate such plans, I shall be happy to send the reader a copy of our mimeographed guide "Planning a Student Trip to Mexico." (Please enclose a self-addressed long envelope with six cents in stamps to cover postage.)

Perhaps some Spanish or social studies groups might like to start the international friendship ball rolling by inviting one or more Mexican students to be their guests for a few days. For a relatively small sum, these young people can be given the experience of a lifetime.

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Democratic Government in Scandinavia

SAMUEL ABRAHAMSSEN

Bay Ridge High School, New York

Although the Scandinavian countries in recent years have made remarkable progress politically, socially and economically, they receive only a passing reference in our educational system. After the defeat of Labor governments in Australia, Great Britain and New Zealand, Norway and Sweden today constitute the only two countries in the world having a Labor government based on popular majority. This and other interesting facts call for a closer study of Denmark, Norway and Sweden. Teachers of social sciences will undoubtedly realize how much their understanding is increased by a working knowledge of Scandinavian social programs, their co-operatives and economic theories.

In area and population, Denmark, Norway and Sweden are comparatively small countries.¹ They are all limited monarchies, but Scandinavia has gradually developed through the years into unusually effective political democracies. Another striking feature is the remarkable lack of extremes in either poverty or wealth which has made today's state planning and control easier to achieve. The social basis for this development has been a successful co-operation between the labor parties, the farmer and the liberal intelligentsia.

The process of democratization in Scandinavia has abolished the dominant position which the well-to-do played in their respective parliaments, and terminated the personal power of the King, which once included his absolute right to choose cabinets.

Americans often wonder how a country can be democratic and still maintain a monarchy. The answer is simply this: the Scandinavian kings of today are thoroughly steeped in the democratic processes, and are the servants of

the people they rule, not their masters; yet they occupy positions of great prestige, and have exerted great personal influence. The courageous leadership displayed by the Norwegian King Haakon VII during the German invasion added enormously to his popularity and brought him into unusual prominence.

The similarity of parliamentary government in the three countries is great. Not only are they all hereditary, constitutional monarchies, but Denmark, Norway and Sweden are conscious of their common interests and heritage. While all three today are independent nations, they have all had a certain amount of common history. Under the Union of Kalmar, (1397) they were united under a single sovereign for almost a hundred years, after which time Norway and Denmark were united until 1814. As a result of the Napoleonic wars Norway was separated from Denmark and united with Sweden.

Before the union with Sweden had become effectively established, the Norwegians proceeded to display their independence by convening a constituent assembly at Eidsvoll, where 112 delegates met in the early Spring of 1814. Here they agreed on a constitution reflecting not only the American Declaration of Independence, but which incorporated also ideas from the French Revolution, the Spanish Constitution of 1812 and British constitutional practices. Finally, the spirit of the old, medieval Norwegian laws was expressed in the revival of certain institutions and words. The new Parliament was given the name "Storting," a name derived from the old sagas.²

The Norwegian Constitution was adopted on May 17, 1814 and has thus endured for 137 years. This fact gives Norway a place among

nations with a long established, written constitution. No sooner had the Constitution been completed than the assembly at Eidsvoll proceeded to choose the Danish Crown Prince Christian Frederik as King of Norway. This led to war with Sweden and the invasion of Norway in July 1814. The conflict lasted only 3 weeks. The ensuing peace conference at Moss recognized Norway as an independent nation under a common king with Sweden. The Constitution of Eidsvoll was to remain in force, but Christian Frederik had to abdicate in favor of the Swedish King. Sweden, following Talleyrand's design, considered Norway a dependency received as compensation for the loss of Finland to Russia in 1809.³

The uneasy union with Sweden lasted until 1905 when Norway decided in favor of complete independence. The circumstances of the dissolution of the union between Norway and Sweden are interesting as they reveal parliamentary processes for *dethroning* a king! What happened was that the Norwegian cabinet resigned because the king did not carry out the will of the people (Storting) to establish a separate consular service for Norway. The Storting refused to accept another cabinet, and the king, since "he cannot rule without a cabinet," is automatically dismissed.⁴

The Storting then proceeded to select a new ruler and the Danish Prince Carl was chosen. After a plebiscite which overwhelmingly endorsed the choice, the young Prince assumed the name of Haakon VII and the motto "All for Norway." The King and the motto are still going strong to this day.

Norway is one of the few countries in the world to have a unicameral legislative body. The superficial observer might, however, mistake it for bicameral, because it splits itself in two branches for purposes of work. The electorate votes for the unicameral Parliament (Storting) in a national election. Of its 150 members, fifty are assigned by the constitution to the cities and towns, and one hundred to the rural areas.

After the new Storting has been elected for four years it meets as a single body to select one-fourth (38 members) to constitute the "Lagting" and the rest (112 members) to compose an "Odelsting." This partition lasts

throughout the electoral period,⁵ but all important decisions are made by the united Storting, where a two-thirds vote is required for passage of a bill.

In Norway the king has a suspensive veto over ordinary legislation, but none over constitutional measures. The Swedish king, however, has an absolute veto which is used sparingly, and in Denmark the king has not used his veto-power since 1865. The executive power in all three countries is exercised by a cabinet under a Prime Minister. These cabinets depend upon the confidence of the Parliaments, but seldom are turned out of office the way cabinets are in France. Only in Denmark can the King dissolve Parliament—as in 1929 or 1939—and thereby terminate the legislative session. In Denmark and Sweden cabinet members are usually members of Parliament, but in Norway they are forbidden to be members of Parliament. If a parliamentary member is chosen as a cabinet minister, he must give up his parliamentary seat to alternates who are selected in the course of the regular elections.

Under parliamentary rules the Norwegian government has to be formed by the majority party, or a combination of parties constituting a ruling majority. In that event the ministers are apportioned among the co-operating parties. At the present time, however, the Labor Party is strong enough to control the Storting alone. The Prime Minister and the members of his cabinet are taken from the Labor party. The strength of the various political parties in Norway is shown in the following table:

	Votes	Representatives
1945:		
Labor	609,348	76
Conservatives	232,608	25
Liberals	204,852	20
Agrarians	119,362	10
Christian		
People Party	117,813	8
Communists	176,535	11
1949:	Votes	Representatives
Labor	800,792	85
Conservatives	277,913	23
Liberals	216,581	21
Agrarians	85,008	12
Christian		
People Party	146,413	9
Communists	101,666	0

In contrast to Norway, Sweden has a bicameral Parliament, known as the "Riksdag." The Upper House corresponds to the American Senate and is called *Forsta Kammaret* (literally First Chamber), which is made up of 150 members, who must be at least 35 years of age. The property qualifications for membership in the First Chamber were abolished some years ago.⁷ They are elected indirectly by the provincial and municipal council for a period of eight years.

The lower house, or *Andra Kammaret* (Second Chamber) has 230 members who are elected for a four-year term by universal suffrage. Although the members to the First Chamber are indirectly elected and for a longer term than the Second Chamber, both houses have substantially equal status under the law. Should the two houses fail to agree on a measure, however, the larger, lower house may have a decisive voice in the joint votes which take place on matters of public finance.

The Swedish *Riksdag* celebrated its quincentennial in 1935. During this long period of five hundred years the influence of the Riksdag varied of course from time to time, but the rights of representation for the four estates (nobility, clergy, burghers and farmers) were always acknowledged.⁸

In 1866 the old legislature based on the four estates was replaced by the two-chamber one, but voting for the members of the upper house was restricted to large landowners and civil servants. Voting for members of the lower house was largely restricted to well-to-do farmers. The constitutional reforms, however, of 1907-1909 and 1918-1921 saw the acceptance in Sweden of universal suffrage for men and women. But not until 1917 was the parliamentary system established which had been accepted in Norway since 1884. Before 1917 the persistent opposition of the king and the conservatives had prevented parliamentary government from becoming a reality. Today the Cabinet (Council of State) is collectively responsible to the Riksdag as a whole.

The strength of the various parties in Sweden may be gleaned from this table:

**I. The Lower House (*Andra Kammaret*):
(230 members)**

Election year:	1940	1944	1948
Labor Party	134	115	112
Liberals (Folkepartiet)	23	26	57
Farmer's Party	28	35	30
Conservatives (Hogern)	42	39	22
Communists	3	15	9

**II. The Upper House (*Forsta Kammaret*):
(150 members)**

Election year:	1937	1941	1945
Labor Party	66	75	83
Liberals	16	15	14
Farmer's Party	22	24	21
Conservatives	45	35	30
Communists	1	1	2

The tradition of self government in Denmark is not as old as in Norway or Sweden. The Danish democratic Constitution goes back to 1849, and laid the foundation for the free election of members to the *Riksdag* on an equal basis of suffrage for all male adults. The political life of Denmark during the latter part of the nineteenth century is characterized by the fight of the farmers to introduce the principles of parliamentarianism. Only since 1901 has the parliamentary system been in practice, whereby the cabinet is chosen by the majority of the lower house (*Folketing*). Prior to that time the King chose the cabinet according to the majority of the upper house alone (*Landsting*).

The *Folketing* of 149 members is elected by direct, popular vote every fourth year, and members to the *Landsting* of 76 members every eighth year. One fourth of the members of the upper house are elected by their fellow members before retiring. In spite of strong demands for the abolition of the *Landsting* it still exercises some influence as a check upon legislation.

The political strength of the various Danish political parties is thus:

The Lower House (*Folketing*, 149 members)

Election year:	1943	1945	1947
Labor Party	66	48	57
Farmers' Party	28	38	49
Conservatives	31	26	17
Liberals	13	11	10
Communists	..	18	9
Others (<i>Andre partier</i>)	10	7	6

The Upper House (Landsting, 76 members)

<i>Election year:</i>	1939	1943	1947
Labor Party	35	34	33
Farmers' Party	18	18	21
Conservatives	13	14	13
Liberals	8	8	7
Communists	1
Others (Andre partier)

¹ Denmark, 6575 sq. m. (excluding Greenland over which Denmark exercises sovereignty), Norway, 124,556 sq. m., Sweden 173,347 sq. m. Their populations are

respectively (1950): 4,146,000 for Denmark, while Norway has 3,200,000 and Sweden 6,800,000.

² Jac. S. Worm-Muller: *Kong Haakon og 1905*, in "Alt for Norge," London, 1942, p. 22.

³ Karen Larsen, *A History of Norway*, Princeton University Press, 1948, p. 484, published by American-Scandinavian Foundation.

⁴ Abel Abrahamsen, "Norway's Jolly Good King," *Coronet*, Vol. 26, May, 1949, p. 74.

⁵ Sverre Mortensen & A. Skoyen, *The Norway Yearbook*, Oslo, Johan Grundt Tanum, 1950, p. 67.

⁶ Hal Koch and Alf Rose (ed.) *Nordisk Demokrati*, Copenhagen 1949; Mortensen & Skoyen, *Ibid.* p. 102.

⁷ Franklin D. Scott, *The United States and Scandinavia*, Harvard University Press, 1950, pp. 94-5.

⁸ Henning Friis (ed.) *Scandinavia between East and West*, Cornell University Press, 1950, p. 31.

The Teachers' Page

HYMAN M. BOODISH

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The study of government is one of the important areas of instruction in the secondary schools. Most junior high schools give some time to a study of civics and most high schools include the study of the structure and function of government in their Problems Course. How effective is this study of government in terms of developing adults who are politically literate and responsible citizens?

A few days before the writing of this paper I attended a small informal luncheon meeting consisting of several civic and several school representatives. The purpose of the meeting was to explore how the study of government might be expanded and improved.

The discussions were warm, friendly, and sincere. Some of the comments made were arresting in their implications. One of the points of discussion, for example, dealt with the question of "getting out the vote" for the presidential election. There isn't anyone, who sincerely believes in democracy, that hasn't been chagrined by the apathy and apparent disinterest displayed by a large number of American citizens towards government, as measured by their failure to register and vote at elections. Certainly, we who know from our study of history how the right to vote was won through "blood, sweat, and tears," cannot understand

how people can regard with indifference the only real guarantee of the freedoms we cherish—the right to vote. It is with a great deal of satisfaction, therefore, that many persons regarded the "all out" efforts on the part of the press and the radio and television stations in urging the people to register and vote.

Yet, we must pause and raise some questions, as was done by one of the civic representatives at the meeting. Having devoted the major part of his life fighting for good city government through an enlightened exercise of the franchise, his point had all the more force behind it than it might otherwise have had. Briefly, his comment in effect was: Should we be concerned, as we are, merely with how many people vote, or more with how enlightened are the few who do vote? He cited the fact that in the dictator countries much greater percentages of the people vote at elections, but that doesn't assure either a democratic election or a democratic government.

This spirited citizen felt that the schools have a responsibility in making sure that we have both a larger percentage of people voting and also voters who are well informed. This responsibility, he felt, can be fulfilled only through continuous instruction, beginning in the lower grades and going through high school.

It is necessary to begin the study of government and politics in the early grades, he thought, in order to reach those students who drop out of school before they enter high school or graduate.

The manner of instruction and the subject content also received the attention of the small group. The chief problem was: How can the schools make the study of government more effective? An interesting, though of course not new, emphasis was suggested. In the past, and to a large extent today, the study of government in the schools concerned itself with an analytical examination of the structure of government and the function of its various organs. In the main, this kind of learning about government has not been "realistic." What is necessary is considerable more realism by an emphasis on such themes of government as how political parties operate, how committee men are chosen, how magistrates and judges are elected and how the political party wields its power through its committeemen and ward leaders. It is interesting in this connection to refer to a speech on corruption in government made by one of the presidential candidates in the last election.

" . . . Bernard Shaw said that democracy is a device that insures that we shall be governed no better than we deserve. Whose fault is it then that we get what we deserve in government . . . ? . . . it is the fault of you, the people.

"Your public servants serve you right. Indeed, often they serve you better than your apathy and your indifference deserve, but I suggest there is always time to . . . amend your ways. However, you won't amend your ways just by redoubling your resolve to help your favorite candidate for President . . .

"No, [it] is much more difficult than that, because there are the little matters of [choosing] precinct committeemen, of state committeemen, of state's attorneys, of sheriffs, county officials or aldermen, of councilmen, of mayors, of governors, congressmen and judges—all of . . . our democratic system of popular choice. The whole is the sum of the parts, and the whole will be no better than the parts . . .

"It seems to me that the government is

like a pump, and what it pumps up is just what we are, a fair sample of the intellect and morals of the people, no better, no worse . . . "

As the discussions progressed other areas were explored. The question of adult indifference and its influence on young people was posed as a force counter to what the schools are trying to do. The need for adult education programs in this area also seemed desirable. The possibility of lowering the voting age to eighteen came in for some discussion. The group felt that a strong motivational force would be present in the senior high schools if students knew that they would be eligible to vote upon graduation or shortly afterwards.

A number of practical problems naturally presented themselves and were discussed briefly. These were:

1. *Problem of time allotment* in the face of other demands made upon the curriculum. The group agreed in general that time must be found for such education.
2. *Grade level*. There was agreement that considerable emphasis be given on the junior high school level to the study of government to make sure that all possible "drop outs" are reached.
3. *Techniques, materials, use of the community*. There was agreement that more than mere knowledge of government and politics is necessary for a pupil to become a responsible citizen. Administrative difficulties in connection with planning student visits were mentioned. The possibility of developing specially prepared pamphlets and motion pictures was discusssd briefly. In general, everyone felt that for the education to be really effective it must be made realistic.
4. *Obtaining student enthusiasm*. One of the major blocks is that student interests and immediate needs are removed from the ultimate objectives of good citizenship. However, it was felt that with teacher enthusiasm and correspondingly appropriate emphasis, students would be interested in the study of government. It was at this point that the suggestion was made that if the voting age could be lowered to

eighteen, a powerful incentive force would be present.

5. *Teacher training.* Due to insufficient time to discuss this point, it was deferred for later consideration. The possibility of in-service courses was mentioned.

6. *Subject content.* As indicated the group agreed that a theoretical knowledge of the structure and function of government was not enough in producing articulate citizens. How to make the study of government

more realistic and practical is the big problem.

The meeting did not adjourn without making definite plans for implementing further action on the part of the schools. We shall be glad to report in the future if readers are interested, any further developments. In the meantime, we should welcome contributions from teachers on experiments, methods and techniques they employ that emphasize a realistic rather than the purely theoretical study of government.

Visual and Other Aids

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

Copies of new catalogs of teaching films and filmstrips may be obtained from Young America Films, Inc., 18 E. 41 St., New York 17, New York. You will find listed many valuable films and strips for social studies.

A booklet, *Guide to Films in Economic Education*, which was published in co-operation with the Joint Council on Economic Education, may be obtained from the Dept. of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association, Washington, D. C. for \$1.00. It contains a synopsis and evaluation for about 140 films and filmstrips. The novel feature of this bibliography is the recommendations which contain analytical comments pointing out strong and weak aspects in the films and suggestions for areas of usefulness.

FILMS

Ballad of the West. 14 minutes. Sale. Black and white. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc. Wilmette, Illinois.

This film besides its entertaining value, also tells a story which embodies the basic concept of American free enterprise.

It Takes Everybody to Build This Land. 21 minutes. Black and white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Tells the story of people engaged in different types of work, and the interdependence of one with another. Shows how the efforts of all are needed to build a country.

Library Story. 15 minutes. Sale. Color. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

The film illustrates the ways in which a modern library serves its community.

India. 17 minutes. Black and white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Depicts an ancient land as it breaks with its past. It is designed to present a comprehensive picture of India today and thereby to create greater understanding.

Italy. 17 minutes. Black and white. Sale. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

Brings alive the problems of Italy in the modern world, . . . problems stemming back into the historic past still enmarbled in the streets of its living cities.

"A" For Achievement. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Free loan. Savings Banks Association of the State of New York, 110 E. 42 St., New York 17, N. Y.

Jim, a junior high student, has to write a theme on savings banks. He visits an officer in a bank, who discusses with Jim its values and importance and explains the primary reason for the existence of a savings bank.

America and Sons, Unlimited. 14 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Chamber of Commerce of the U. S., 1615 H St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

Reveals the story of American economic growth, with emphasis on how the American

system produces more goods than that in many other countries. Shows the development of American industry from early days to the present.

Banks and Credit. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Instructional Films, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Ill.

This film sets forth the essential part a commercial bank plays in a community.

Battle for Bread. 23 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. March of Time Forum Films, 369 Lexington Ave., New York 17, N. Y.

This is the story of how the Food and Agricultural Organization of the United Nations is waging a world battle against hunger, with concentration on two countries—India and China.

Big Harvest. 19 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Films Inc., 330 W. 42 St., New York 18, N. Y.

This is an omnibus picture of farming all over the world, with emphasis on farming in the U. S.

The Bridge. 30 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. N.Y.U. Film Library, 26 Washington Place, New York 3, N. Y.

It presents the economic basis of trade relations between Latin America and the rest of the world, with emphasis on Latin America's needs for diversification in agriculture, better transportation, and industrialization.

Britain and Her Empire. 17 minutes. Sound. Black and white. March of Time Forum Films.

Great Britain's post war dilemma is pictured here as the struggle of a nation to build a stable society in a war devastated country.

Canada, World Traveler. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. International Film Bureau, 6 No. Michigan Ave., Chicago 2, Ill.

The film points to the vast industrialization pattern that Canada has undergone, before, during, and after World War II.

Caravans of Trade. 19 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Films Inc.

Beginning with the camel and the caravan routes of the East, this film surveys the development of land, water, and air transportation down to the present.

Capitalism. 10 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films.

What is capitalism? A group of high school students are engaged in a round table discussion. Topics covered are private enterprise, profit motive, the economic system and competition.

Cities: Why They Grow. 1 reel. Sound. Black and white. Sale. Coronet Films.

A city is defined and an attempt is made to show what it contains.

Common Concern. 20 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Sale. National Film Board of Canada, 1270 Avenue of the Americas, New York 20, N. Y.

It shows the necessity for co-operating throughout the world for producing, distributing, and so managing food production that all the world may be fed.

Federal Reserve Bank and You. 30 minutes. Sound. Black and white. Free loan. Federal Reserve Bank of New York, 33 Liberty St., New York, N. Y.

The operation of the Federal Reserve System is explained against the backdrop of a high school romance.

FILMSTRIPS

Basic Economic Series. Color. \$6.00 ea., \$43.20 set of 8. Based on book *Enterprise Island* by H. C. Sonne. *Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.*

Part I—Living and Working Without Money. 60 frames.

The story of how the citizens of an imaginary community (Enterprise Island) learn to specialize in the work for which each is best fitted and to save part of their wealth.

Part II—Money. 65 frames.

The citizens of Enterprise Island set up a standard of value for the exchange of goods and then introduce a standard medium of exchange.

Part III—Money Goes To Work. 61 frames.

One tribesman on Enterprise Island becomes financially independent and learns to invest his savings (wealth), thereby earning a fair profit for himself and, at the same time, helping others who need capital for worthwhile enterprises.

Part IV—New Ways to Use Money. 64 frames.

The tribesmen of Enterprise Island establish a safe deposit system to protect personal sav-

ings, a system of borrowing and lending at interest, and a method of group financing for business ventures.

Part V—Too Much Money. 61 frames.

The story of the economic disruption caused on Enterprise Island when the government makes errors in connection with an overambitious program of public works.

Part VI—Money and Government. 61 frames.

The story of how a central government is set up on Enterprise Island—why it is needed, how it functions, how it is financed, and how it intervenes to relieve a financial crisis.

Part VII—Money and Panic. 62 frames.

The story of how certain men on Enterprise Island take untried steps to protect a joint investment in a new venture.

Part VIII—Too Little Spending. 61 frames.

The story of how the people of Enterprise Island establish a new monetary base.

RECORDINGS

Cavalcade of America Series. 30 minutes each.

Size A-12 in. records at 78 r.p.m.; Size B-16

in. records at 33 1/3 r.p.m. Nat'l Assoc. of Secondary School Principals, 1201 16 St., N.W., Washington, D. C.

1. The Constitution of the U. S.

Events leading up to the end of the Confederation, the necessity for a Constitution, its acceptance, and the inauguration of George Washington.

2. Sam Houston.

Portrays the work of Sam Houston in winning Texas sovereignty from Mexico, making Texas an empire and finally securing annexation.

3. Benedict Arnold.

Events during the Revolution leading to Benedict Arnold's attempt to sell West Point to the British, his flight to England and his lonely, dishonored life after the war.

RADIO

Reporter's Roundup (MBS) 9:30-10:00 P.M.

Presents a group of radio and newspaper reporters in interviews with a newsmaker of the day.

News and Comment

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

LUMBER

The lumber industry has been important in the development of the United States. The industry's growth in Pennsylvania has been significant from a national as well as a local point of view.

"When Timber Was King" is the theme of the October, 1952, issue of the quarterly journal of the Pennsylvania Historical Association—*Pennsylvania History*. Beginning with the cover of the periodical the theme is carried out in the forest green border above and below a woodland scene sketched in the same color.

The introduction to "When Timber Was King in Pennsylvania" was written by Dr. S. K. Stevens, the State Historian of Pennsylvania, who analyzes briefly the significance of the lumbering industry in the history of the economy and technology of Pennsylvania. He points out the great basic importance of timber in the early economy of Pennsylvania.

Wood was used in building everything from homes to ships. It was an essential material for making tools and household equipment. The woods of Pennsylvania provided potash for foreign and domestic trade, lumber for barrels and casks which contained the preserved food of the epoch, and bark for dyes and for tanning leather. The forest furnished charcoal, a fuel needed by the iron industry until about 1865.

In 1870 Pennsylvania was the leading lumbering state in the nation. By 1880 Pennsylvania had lost her first place in lumbering to Michigan as the head of the industry moved westward.

In concluding his introduction Dr. Stevens suggests that there is an interesting field for exploration in the story of how Pennsylvania helped in the spread of the lumber industry to the West and South.

Two articles in this issue, "Lumbering in Penn's Woods" and "The Last Raft," were both

written by Lewis Edwin Theiss. L. Rodman Wurster is the author of "Memories of the Susquehanna Boom."

Lumbermen, lumber camps and lumber companies of Pennsylvania are discussed in other articles.

Beautiful photographs, etchings and sketches in black and white illustrate the Pennsylvania landscape. A small but clearly drawn and easily read map drawn to scale shows the voyage of the last raft down the Susquehanna in 1938. Another noteworthy illustration is the "Sectional View Showing Construction of Timber Raft," reprinted by permission from *The Last Raft* by Joseph D. Tonkin.

INDIAN PATHS

In "Historic Indian Paths of Pennsylvania," Paul A. Wallace (*The Pennsylvania Magazine*, October, 1952) acknowledges the help of the people who assisted his research — "this Brotherhood of Indian Trail Followers." To them the author says: "Thank you. May your moccasins always be dry, and your path free of logs and briars."

With this picturesque introduction Dr. Wallace considers the achievements of the Pennsylvania Indians as roadmakers, comparing them with their European contemporaries:

The key to the principles of Indian trail location is the phrase, "dry, level, and direct." The Indians' through routes went as straight as topography would allow in contrast to the white man's roads which turned aside to avoid farms or to pick up traffic in small towns in the valleys.

In Dr. Wallace's opinion, the routing of the Pennsylvania Turnpike is a return to the Indian's conception of highway location in this respect: "Keep an eye on the distant terminus, and allow local feeders to take care of the side traffic."

The most remarkable characteristic of all about Pennsylvania's Indian paths, in Dr. Wallace's judgment, was the complexity of the system they comprised and its adaptability to changing seasons and conditions of travel, whether one views the whole state or a small district.

Dr. Wallace states that the forest was a busy place and the traveler frequently met Indians

on the trail who were engaged in hunting, trade, war, diplomacy or visiting relatives. He holds that few races have had as good a record as our Indians have had for courtesies and friendship offered to strangers.

When a traveler met a party of Indians, it was good form to sit down with them and smoke a friendly pipe of tobacco and exchange news. The Indians were very hospitable and shared their venison or bear meat with their guest.

The best time to travel was in the spring and fall.

Hazards to the traveler were forest fires, flash floods, storms, and the inability to select the right path from the great number that existed. To help the traveler the Indians created "the Painted Line" by stripping a ring of bark from a tree and painting on the exposed surface, with red ochre and charcoal, the news of the day. It has been said that these tree paintings remained visible sometimes for as long as fifty years. Dr. Wallace states that all the Indians of Pennsylvania, whatever their spoken language, could read these pictures, which told about war heroes or gave the latest gossip about local hunting parties. In the neighborhood of some Moravian Indian towns, trees were painted with Scriptural texts.

The Indian trails differed in width and distinctness, the more traveled paths being wider and well beaten down.

As the centers of Indian population in Pennsylvania moved westward toward the Ohio and Allegheny rivers, some Indian paths were forgotten. Others were widened into bridle paths for pack horses and then into roads for the Conestoga wagons.

The problems involved in mapping Indian paths include their nomenclature. This depends upon usage which is extremely variable for reasons which Dr. Wallace explains.

His article concludes with "A Schedule of Sixteen Important Indian Paths" and a splendid and valuable map of Pennsylvania entitled, "Historic Indian Paths of Pennsylvania."

INTELLECTUAL ABILITY OF HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

In the *New York Times* of Sunday, October 12, 1952, the Editor of the Section on Educa-

tion, Mr. Benjamin Fine, considered the problem of dealing with the range of the intellectual abilities of high school pupils in "Problem in High Schools Is How to Cope with Students of Various Intellectual Levels."

This fall more than six million pupils are enrolled in the nation's public high schools. In the last forty years the high school enrollment has quadrupled. It has been estimated that by 1960 the present number of pupils will be doubled and that more than 8,000,000 boys and girls will be attending United States secondary schools.

The expansion of enrollment has caused a number of problems, one of the most serious being how to cope with pupils of all intellectual levels.

Formerly, practically everyone who attended high school was preparing to go to college. Then the question of curriculum was easy: the schools stressed a college-preparatory course. In contrast to this situation, at the present time, about 80 per cent of the high school students do not continue beyond the high school level. Therefore, for them a college preparatory course is neither satisfactory nor realistic.

About five years ago the United States Office of Education created a Life Adjustment Education Commission to study the problem of secondary education. Its chief aim is to study how to make high school more attractive and more meaningful to the boy or girl who does not plan to continue his formal education. Half the students who enter high school as freshmen do not remain to graduate. This "drop-out" rate is a major source of concern.

Recently, the nation's foremost educators met to discuss how to vitalize secondary school education.

The conference set as its central theme pupil appraisal. Instead of evaluating pupils' progress in traditional terms of academic grades, it was suggested by Dr. Paul B. Diederick that the teachers should collect evidence of the development of those characteristics which increase the chances of attaining happiness, both as individuals and as a society. For example, a "profile index" of each pupil would grade the boy or girl on such qualities as:

"Practical competence in shopping and

buying wisely; caring for children; driving a car; health knowledge; self confidence and poise; good health habits; honesty and responsibility; friendly relations with others; and acceptance of majority decisions."

The educators on the Commission generally approved the following blue print for teachers:

- "(1) Teachers should be able to appraise pupil progress in terms of the varied background of pupils.
- "(2) Teachers should be able to help students recognize and evaluate their progress in terms of goals and needs.
- "(3) Teachers should be able to appraise pupil progress in the direction of a variety of objectives.
- "(4) Teachers should be able to make evaluation a continuous process and an integral part of instruction.
- "(5) Teachers should be able to evaluate their own teaching effectiveness."

Besides evaluating the work of the students it is necessary to improve the course of studies to meet the needs of the majority of students. Professor L. Thomas Hopkins believes that if the schools are to be successful they must organize their programs around the life processes of the individual pupils.

Professor Hopkins believes that fear must be taken out of education, that the environment must be an informal "releasing environment" and that work should be done in "a climate of open atmosphere of learning."

OUR TIMES

Our Times is the title of an educational eight page long newspaper designed for the junior high school level.

The important news is selected, condensed, simplified and attractively offered to teen-agers who have average reading ability. A brief quiz in a box to test reading ability looks like a game instead of a test. Stories are illustrated with cartoons, pictographs and photographs, by diagrams, and maps. Variety is provided by movie previews and reviews, campaign slogans and suggestions for watching football. Jokes and Junior Town Meeting Discussion topics and science stories are other items in a lively, interesting and appealing newspaper.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

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A History of China. By W. E. Soothill. Rev. and ed. by G. F. Hudson. New York: 1951. Pp. xiv, 127. \$1.50.

As missionary and scholar-educator in China, W. E. Soothill became uniquely well acquainted with that country. He perhaps served as one of the few real personality bridges between East and West. This volume was originally published in 1927, the fateful year which saw the latter beginnings of civil strife in China; strife which, in all probability, is not yet concluded. Mr. Hudson has added a chapter on developments from that period and also contributed an interesting foreword on Mr. Soothill and his career in the Far East. Of course, the role of the scholar-missionary is not an unfamiliar one in the East, but obviously more beneficent and more popular in Mr. Soothill's case than in many.

China is a vast subject; one not easily compressed into a volume the size of this series, but the work at hand lends itself readily to such a project because of its excellence. No significant development in the chronology of the country is omitted, and the work can also serve as an excellent beginning and guide to further study. Even the literary figures are introduced briefly and assessed for their role in their country's progression down the corridor of time. There is a minimum of editorializing, which enhances the character of this treatment.

The work contains a reasonable and selective bibliography of additional works. There also is a pronunciation guide for those uninitiated into the mysteries of the Chinese language, and the end papers are a fascinating map of the provincial sub-divisions of China prevailing up to 1949. It is to be hoped that Contemporary Books will expand this series of highly desirable publications in the future.

CLIFFORD MONTGOMERY

University of Miami
Miami, Florida

Outside Readings in American Government.
Edited by H. Malcolm MacDonald, Wilfred

D. Webb, Edward G. Lewis, William L. Strauss. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 2nd ed., 1952. Pp. xi, 884.

Today, there is a growing tendency to use "readings" in elementary and advanced classes, due to two factors: (1) the lowered cost of volumes which allow the purchase of such volumes and which, at the same time, contain significant and pertinent selection from the widely scattered material; and (2) which provide documents which quicken student interest in lively issues of the past and present rather than supplying exhaustive documentation.

The present volume, already in its second revised edition, has done more than well in this respect. Its popularity in the recent years has led the editors to make significant changes. No less than 48 new selections have been added, most of which had not even been written 3 years ago. As they did in the first edition, the editors have endeavored to present more than a compilation of traditional documents on American government. Reflecting the changing times, most of the new material covers Civil Rights, Foreign Relations, Congress, State Legislatures, and Local Government.

In this highly competitive field, the editors of the present work will, no doubt, keep it on the list of the one of the most successful compilation on the field which, if anything, has seen its share of textbooks and readings covering all possible angles.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

Governments of Continental Europe. Edited by James T. Shotwell. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1952. Pp. xv, 881. Revised Edition. \$6.00.

This book, the first edition of which appeared in September, 1940, is edited by James T. Shotwell and also provided by him with an introduction on "The Problem of Government." It

is the composite work of known specialists, the Professors R. K. Gooch (France), A. J. Zurcher (Italy, Switzerland), K. Loewenstein (Germany), and M. T. Florinsky (Russia). The revised edition is still one of the most solid achievements in a field in which there are many first-class works.

The new edition does not include any longer a treatment of the government of the Low Countries and the Scandinavian states. Of the smaller European states only Switzerland is dealt with again. The political institutions of Great Britain are not considered in this discussion which is limited to the governments of continental Europe.

The twelve years which have elapsed since the first edition have been eventful years, and the text therefore had to be largely rewritten. It has not merely been brought up-to-date, but has been revamped in parts, with great emphasis placed upon constitutional developments since 1945, especially in France, Italy, and Germany. In the section on Germany the detailed historical survey up to 1918 has been omitted. On the other hand, as many as 175 pages are devoted to a full discussion of German political developments since 1945.

This work is highly informative, and the facts are clearly, succinctly, and impartially presented. The bibliographical notes are excellent. The second edition of this work deserves as much recognition as the first.

ALFRED D. LOW

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Marietta, Ohio

Origins of the New South 1877-1913. By C. Vann Woodward. Vol IX of *A History of the South*. Edited by W. H. Stephenson and E. M. Coulter. Baton Rouge. Louisiana State University Press, 1951. Pp. xi, 542. \$6.50.

This magnificent study is a monumental treatment of a neglected period of Southern history and is thoroughly revisionist in every respect. The quality of this new series on the South is not only maintained but enhanced by the appearance of this volume. It is fitting that the writer should be the current president of the Southern Historical Association. Those

acquainted with previous books written by Professor Woodward will recognize the same painstaking research, the detached viewpoint, and critical analysis in this monograph. It is the story of the Redeemers' struggle in establishing the New Order in the post-Reconstruction South, centered around the theme of cheap resources, business opportunities, railroad developments, and commercial enterprise, superimposed on the romantic tradition of the Confederacy which produced antagonisms, bitter struggles for supremacy, and the many paradoxes which are the South.

In spite of the rise of the so-called "Solid South" based on the theme of white supremacy, economic and political cleavages, as well as discords, continued to characterize the section in this period as they had in the ante-bellum years. There is much in this volume that lends understanding to the present political dilemma of Southern Democrats who are, and always have been, more in sympathy with old line Whig principles but have never been willing to join forces with the Republican Party except informally. The major problem of the "New South" is minutely examined: which way should she throw her weight in the impending struggle over national issues? Should she realign herself with the agrarian West, join forces with other rebellious forces such as Eastern labor, or combine with Northern conservatives and reinforce the new capitalistic order which already had remade the Northeast and imposed its gospel of wealth and progress upon the nation?

Mr. Woodward throws new light on the disputed election of 1876 by examining the alliance between Republicans and Southern conservatives motivated by the economic interests of the Southern Redeemers. This alliance, however, was breached by the waves of agrarian radicalism which swept the South after 1878. He points out how the doctrine of *laissez faire* almost became a test of Southern patriotism.

This remarkable book tells the intricate story of the establishment of a new system of caste, the development of a new economy, and the achievement of a social revolution, ending with the return of the South to political power, at

least temporarily, with the election of Woodrow Wilson.

The reviewer considers this a model book for exhaustive research, penetrative insight, and judicious interpretation. A gap is filled in the history of the South which hitherto has received little or no broad treatment. Although the volume is indispensable to the scholar and teacher of American history, there is much to interest and reward the efforts of any layman who would read the work.

JOHN L. HARR

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Cultural Sciences: Their Origin and Development. By Florian Znaniecki. Urbana: The University of Illinois Press, 1952. Pp. ix, 438. \$6.00.

In this scholarly work, the famous Polish philosopher and sociologist who first achieved fame in this country with the publication of the monumental *Polish Peasant in Europe and America* (with W. I. Thomas) over a third of a century ago, addresses himself to the problem of the essential characteristics of the cultural sciences. He is concerned, too, with delineating the differences between the natural and the cultural sciences, and with determining why metaphysics preceded the development of the natural sciences, and the reason for the emergence of the social or cultural sciences only after the natural sciences had been established on a sound and unshakeable foundation.

He prefers the term "cultural" to designate what are usually called the "social" sciences because of his insistence that the essential, qualitative difference between the natural and the so-called social sciences is that the phenomena which are the focus of the latter are cultural in nature. In some of the most closely reasoned pages of the work he demonstrates the impossibility of reducing cultural data to either objective natural reality or to subjective psychological phenomena. He further shows that a concrete living human individual as a common datum of human experience is a cultural product of many conscious agents, and that a common conception of a particular collectivity (he prefers this to such terms as

group, community, or society) as a whole is a cultural product as well.

One of his conclusions must be reckoned with by all of those who, after the current fashion of the day, are contending for general, integrating, core courses in the social sciences which are to combine the subject matter of all of the social sciences into a social science sequence of from two to four semesters. It may serve to explain the continual experimentation with courses of this type, the fact that they so rarely fulfill the function expected of them. He concludes that the specialization of the social or cultural sciences is objectively justified, and cannot be overcome. He further finds that an analysis of the connection between the other specialized social sciences and sociology leads to the conclusion that sociology is the basic social science, just as physics is the basic natural science.

This is one of the most significant works by a social scientist that has appeared in recent years. It commends itself to all social studies teachers. The patient effort which the reader must expend upon it will be amply rewarded by a fuller comprehension of the essential characteristics of the cultural sciences.

JERRY A. NEPRASH

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The Struggle for Transcaucasia. By Firuz Kazemzaheh. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. xiii, 356. \$5.75.

Transcaucasia remains one of the few little known lands, a *terra incognita*, lying at the meeting point of Asia and Europe, where events of international significance took place during 1917-1921. The present brief study tries to fill the gap, dealing with the struggle for Transcaucasia, which began with the dissolution of the Russian Imperial authority, culminated in the formation of 3 independent Republics, and ended with the formation of Soviet regimes in Azerbaijan, Armenia and Georgia. Only a specialist knowing Russian can deal with this area; at the same time, the problem of knowing the region better is complicated by the fact that the books and material available in the native language are invariably interested in presenting a one-sided picture and partisan interpreta-

tions. It is to the credit of the author that he has utilized a number of documents, diaries, and periodicals which are generally unknown. The work was done at the Hoover Institute, Stanford University, and is amply documented. To the credit of the author is his knowledge of both Russian and Persian life and language, integrated with a Western education.

The general thesis of the author analyzes how the struggle for Transcaucasia was caused by foreign as well as domestic factors. The author describes well how Transcaucasia proclaimed its independence and constituted itself a Federal Republic, although it was short-lived. "Probably for the first time in their history the Georgian, the Armenian, and above all the Azerbaijani masses realized their national and cultural separateness, though their independent political organizations had to give way before the overwhelming might of their northern neighbor" (p. 331).

All in all, this is a scholarly contribution which has thrown a lot of light on one of the most neglected spots of the "soft underbelly" of Soviet Russia.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

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World Population. Proceedings of the second Centennial Academic Conference of Northwestern University. Edited by Paul K. Hatt. Price \$3.50. American Book Company, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York 3, New York.

Earning a Living in Philadelphia. Prepared by the Curriculum Planning Committee for Social Studies in the Elementary Schools. Copies free: Curriculum office, 21st and Parkway, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

Careers for Tomorrow. A guide to vocations, by Carrington Shiels. Price \$1.00. Civic Education Service Incorporated, Washington, D. C.

Teaching Tests to Accompany America's History. By Lewis Paul Todd and Merle Curti. Price 75 cents. Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, New York.

Workbook Guide To the World's History. By Ruth O. M. Anderson. Price 75 cents. Harcourt, Brace, and Company, New York, New York.

Our Foreign Policy 1952. Department of State Publication Number 4466. Price 25 cents. Superintendent of Documents, Washington 25, D. C.

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The Anatomy of Communism. By Andrew M. Scott. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. xii, 197. \$3.00.

Minorities in American Society. By Charles F. Marden. New York: American Book Company, 1952. Pp. xvii, 493. \$4.50.

Immortal Longings. By G. T. Bellhouse. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. xxi, 128. \$2.75.

And Crown Thy Good. By Philip Davis. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xvii, 239. \$4.50.

An autobiography of an immigrant boy who has risen to high places.

Nietzsche and Christian Ethics. By R. Motson Thompson. New York: Philosophical Library, 1951. Pp. ix, 102. \$3.00.

A criticism of Nietzschean doctrines.

Heavens on Earth: Utopian Communities in America 1680-1880. New York: Library Publishers, 1951. Pp. xiii, 240. \$4.75.

Interesting study of early American community life.

Ethics and the Modern World. By Frederick Mayer and Floyd H. Ross. Dubuque, Iowa:

William C. Brown Company, 1951. Pp. xxvi, 373. \$4.00.

Universities and World Affairs. By Howard E. Wilson. New York: Carnegie Endowment For International Peace, 1951. Pp. iii, 88. \$1.00.
A survey of the possibilities by which colleges and universities may influence international relations constructively.

The Quest for Utopia: An Anthology of Imaginary Societies. By Glenn Negley and J. Max Patrick. New York: Henry Schuman, Incorporated, 1952. Pp. xxxiii, 599. \$6.75.

The Single Woman of Today. By M. B. Smith. New York: The Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xxxix, 130. \$2.75.

Living and Planning your Life. By N. William Newsom, Harl R. Douglass and Harry L. Dotson. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. Pp. v, 470. 3.00.
An excellent book for guidance teachers and use in various units of problems courses.

The Life and Times of Daniel Lindley 1801-80. By Edwin W. Smith. New York: Library Publishers, 1952. Pp. xiii, 456. \$5.50.
Story of one of first American Missionaries in South Africa.

From Wealth To Welfare. By Harry K. Girvetz. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1952. Pp. xiii, 323. \$5.00.
A carefully documented study of liberalism in the Eighteenth Century.

Story of Nations. By Lester B. Rogers, Fay Adams and Walker Brown. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1952. Pp. xxiii, 730. \$4.16.
This book has had a complete revision.

Race Relations in Ancient Egypt. By S. Davis. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. iii, 176. \$4.50.
A splendid research study on this period.

The Pageant of Netherlands History. By Adriaam J. Barnov. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1952. Pp. xii, 370. \$4.50.
An excellent history of a country that is not written about too frequently.

Underground. By Joseph Tenesbaum. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. xxvii, 532. \$4.50.
An epic story of Eastern Jewry.

Man, Money and Goods. By John S. Gambs. New York: Columbia University Press, 1952. Pp. xvii, 339. \$3.75.

Factor Analysis. By Raymond B. Cattell. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952. Pp. xxi, 462. \$6.00.
Designed to serve as an undergraduate and graduate text in statistics.

Union Solidarity. By Arnold M. Rose. Minneapolis, Minnesota: The University of Minnesota Press, 1952. Pp. vii, 209. \$3.00.
A study of attitudes of rank-and-file members of labor unions.

The Cooperative Movement and Some of its Problems. By Paul Hubert Casselman. New York: Philosophical Library, 1952. Pp. x, 178. \$3.00.

The People of Louisiana. By T. Lynn Smith and Homer L. Hitt. Baton Rouge, Louisiana: Louisiana State University Press, 1952. Pp. xv, 262. \$5.00.
A detailed study of the population of the state.

The Chattanooga Country 1540-1951: From Tomahawks to TVA. By Gilbert E. Govan and James W. Livingood. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Incorporated, 1952. Pp. xx, 509. \$5.00.

America and the Mind of Europe. Edited by Lewis Galantiere. New York: Liberty Publishers, 1952. Pp. x, 125. \$3.00.
Ten writers with international reputations have contributed to the writing of this book.

The Making of English History. By Robert Livingston Schuyler and Herman Rusbel. New York: The Dryden Press, 1952. Pp. viii, 686. \$5.60.
A supplementary text that will prove helpful to all students of English History.

Franklin D. Roosevelt, Man of Destiny. By David E. Weingast. New York: Julian Messner, Incorporated, 1952. Pp. xii, 184. \$2.75.

They Went to College: The College Graduate in America To-day. By Ernest Havemann and Patricia Salter West. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1952. Pp. vii, 277. \$4.00.

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Index

The Social Studies, Volume XLIII

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

January-December, 1952

AUTHORS

Abrahamsen, Samuel, Democratic Government in Scandinavia, 335.

Baker, Riley R., A Brief Summary of What the Bill of Rights is Not, 34.

Bauer, Richard H., A Bibliographical Guide to the Study of History, 64, 124, 155, 204.

Beer, Ethel S., Building Emotional Democracy, 245.

Bennett, A. LeRoy, UNESCO'S Contributions To the Social Sciences, 288.

Black, Robert H., Mark Twain and Education, 202.

Boodish, Hyman M., The Teachers' Page, 36, 81, 128, 169, 210, 248, 300, 338.

Brown, Ralph A. and Brown, Marian R., The Teacher and the Social Studies, 10.

Brown, Ralph A. and Cunningham, Mary E., The Teacher and the Social Studies, 104.

Brown, Ralph A. and Johannis, Theodore B., Jr., The Teacher and the Social Studies, 238.

Brown, Ralph A. and Stewart, Donald H., The Teacher and the Social Studies, 317.

Camp, Cordelia, An Experimental Study in Local History, 284.

Cunningham, Mary E. and Brown, Ralph A., The Teacher and the Social Studies, 104.

Distler, Theodore A., No Salesman Needed, 200.

Eckhauser, Irwin A., Visual and Other Aids, 38, 82, 131, 171, 213, 250, 304, 340.

Fisher, William H., The Integration of Education and Social Development, 160.

Foster, Winifred B., World History by Units for Secondary Schools, 30.

Hailstones, Thomas J., A Brief History of OPS, 325.

Hall, Janet, A Student Looks at Junior Town Meetings, 242.

Harr, David W., Book Reviews and Book Notes, 44, 88, 137, 178, 219, 257, 307, 345.

Heiges, Richard, American Public Opinion Prior to Foreign Wars, 76.

Henry, V. Horatio, Functional Aspect of the Social Science Area, 294.

Irwin, Leonard B., As the Editor Sees It, 2, 50, 98, 146, 186, 226, 274, 314.

Johannis, Theodore B., Jr. and Brown, Ralph A., The Teacher and the Social Studies, 238.

Jones, Sam H., Tale of Two Cities—With a Latin Flavor! 332.

Kemmerer, Donald L., Let's Use More Economics in Teaching Economic History, 3.

Keohane, Robert E., The Source Method in Nebraska, 1891-1900, 51, 113.

King, Josephine, The Two-Party System—Nineteenth Century Views, 195.

Kraszewski, Joan, Washington As an Employer, 299.

Lamson, Herbert D., Home Economists and the Facts of Life, 70.

Mathews, Maxine, Ambassadors of Good Will, 164.

Matlon, Lieutenant John C., Developing the Awareness of Citizenship, 61.

Mayer, Frederick, The Social Philosophy of the Enlightenment, 20.

Michael, Richard B., Teaching the American Historical Myth in the Elementary School, 161.

Pinkett, Harold T., Records in the National Archives as Sources for Research in the Social Sciences, 147.

Pitkanen, Allan M., Colonial Kids Were Not Delinquents, 117.

Punke, Harold H., Political Choice and the Lesser Evil, 229.

Roucek, Joseph S., The Moravian Brethren in America, 58.

Santee, J. F., The Legal Status of Public-School Bible Reading, 291.

Saures, Charles G., Jr., Blood Transfusion in Room 223, 227.

Schapiro, J. Salwyn, The Age of Uncertainty, 187.

Schreiber, Paul R., American History Needs A New Kind of Textbook, 315.

Solis-Cohen, R. T., News and Comment, 40, 84, 133, 173, 216, 252, 305, 342.

Stewart, Donald H. and Brown, Ralph A., The Teacher and The Social Studies, 317.

Vinge, Clarence L., Specialism, Evolution, and Geography, 282.

Wallace, S. A., Georgetown is Saved from the British! 233.

White, Chester Lee, Sherman Day: Pioneer Engineer, 99.

Widmayer, Ruth, The End of American Influence in Soviet Schools, 151.

Wills, Elbert Vaughan, The Place of Johann Brenz In the History of the Reformation, 275.

Wolf, Morris, Topic T19. Sectional Conflict and National Expansion, 23. Topic T20. War and Reconstruction, 71. Topic T21. The Expanding, Prospering Economy After the War Between the States, 119.

ARTICLES

Age of Uncertainty, The, J. Salwyn Schapiro, 187.

Ambassadors of Good Will, Maxine Mathews, 164.

American History Needs A New Kind of Textbook, Paul R. Schreiber, 315.

American Public Opinion Prior to Foreign Wars, Richard Heiges, 76.

Archives as Sources for Research in the Social Sciences, Records in the National, Harold T. Pinkett, 147.

Bible Reading, The Legal Status of Public-School, J. F. Santee, 291.

Bibliographical Guide to the Study of History, A, Richard H. Bauer, 64, 124, 155, 204.

Bill of Rights is Not, A Brief Summary of What, Riley E. Baker, 34.

Blood Transfusion in Room 223, Charles G. Sauers, Jr., 227.

Book Reviews and Book Notes, David W. Harr, 44, 88, 137, 178, 219, 257, 307, 345.

Brenz In the History of the Reformation, The Place of Johann, Elbert Vaughan Wills, 275.

Brief History of OPS, A, Thomas J. Hailstones, 325.

Citizenship, Developing the Awareness of, Lieutenant John C. Matlon, 61.

Colonial Kids Were Not Delinquents, Allan M. Pitkanen, 117.

Current Publications Received, 47, 96, 144, 184, 224, 272, 312, 348.

Delinquents, Colonial Kids Were Not, Allan M. Pitkanen, 117.

Developing the Awareness of Citizenship, Lieutenant John C. Matlon, 61.

Economics in Teaching Economic History, Let's Use More, Donald L. Kemmerer, 3.

Economists and the Facts of Life, Home, Herbert D. Lamson, 70.

Editor Sees It, As the, Leonard B. Irwin, 2, 50, 98, 146, 186, 226, 274, 314.

Emotional Democracy, Building, Ethel S. Beer, 245.

End of American Influence in Soviet Schools, The, Ruth Widmayer, 151.

Evolution, and Geography, Specialism, Clarence L. Vinge, 282.

Experimental Study in Local History, An, Cordelia Camp, 284.

Functional Aspect of the Social Science Area, V. Horatio Henry, 294.

Georgetown is Saved from the British! S. A. Wallace, 233.

Good Will, Ambassadors of, Maxine Mathews, 164.

Helpful Classroom Aids, 94, 143, 183, 224, 268, 311, 348.

Home Economists and the Facts of Life, Herbert D. Lamson, 70.

Integration of Education and Social Development, The, William H. Fisher, 160.

Latin Flavor! Tale of two Cities—With a, Sam H. Jones, 332.

Legal Status of Public-School Bible Reading, The, J. F. Santee, 291.

Local History, An Experimental Study in, Cordelia Camp, 284.

Mark Twain and Education, Robert H. Black, 202.

Moravian Brethren in America, The, Joseph S. Roucek, 58.

Myth in the Elementary School, Teaching the American Historical, Richard B. Michael, 161.

Nebraska, 1891-1900, The Source Method in, Robert E. Keohane, 51, 113.

News and Comment, R. T. Solis-Cohen, 40, 84, 133, 173, 216, 252, 305, 342.

Opinion Prior to Foreign Wars, American Public, Richard Heiges, 76.

OPS, A Brief History of, Thomas J. Hailstones, 325.

Philosophy of the Enlightenment, The Social, Frederick Mayer, 20.

Political Choice and the Lesser Evil, Harold H. Punke, 229.

Reformation, The Place of Johann Brenz In the History of the, Elbert Vaughan Wills, 275.

Salesman Needed, No, Theodore A. Distler, 200.

Scandinavia, Democratic Government in, Samuel Abrahamsen, 335.

Sherman Day: Pioneer Engineer, Chester Lee White, 99.

Social Philosophy of the Enlightenment, The, Frederick Mayer, 20.

Source Method in Nebraska, 1891-1900, The, Robert E. Keohane, 51, 113.

Sources for Research in the Social Sciences, Records in the National Archives as, Harold T. Pinkett, 147.

Soviet Schools, The End of American Influence in, Ruth Widmayer, 151.

Specialism, Evolution, and Geography, Clarence L. Vinge, 282.

Teacher and the Social Studies, The, Ralph A. Brown and Marian R. Brown, 10, Mary E. Cunningham and Ralph A. Brown, 104, Theodore B. Johannis, Jr. and Ralph A. Brown, 238, Donald H. Stewart and Ralph A. Brown, 317.

Teachers' Page, The, Hyman M. Boodish, 36, 81, 128, 169, 210, 248, 300, 338.

Teaching Economic History, Let's Use More Economics in, Donald L. Kemmerer, 3.

Textbook, American History Needs A New Kind of, Paul R. Schreiber, 315.

Topic T19. Sectional Conflict and National Expansion, Morris Wolf, 23.

Topic T20. War and Reconstruction, Morris Wolf, 71.

Topic T21, The Expanding, Prospering Economy After the War Between the States, Morris Wolf, 119.

Town Meetings, A Student Looks at Junior, Janet Hall, 242.

Two Cities—With a Latin Flavor! Tale of, Sam H. Jones, 332.

Two - Party System — Nineteenth Century Views, The, Josephine King, 195.

UNESCO'S Contributions to the Social Sciences, A LeRoy Bennett, 288.

Visual and Other Aids, Irwin A. Eckhauser, 38, 82, 131, 171, 213, 250, 304, 340.

Washington As an Employer, Joan Kraszewski, 299.

World History by Units for Secondary Schools, Winifred B. Foster, 30.

BOOK REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES
Arranged Alphabetically by Author's Names
(Reviewer's Name in Parenthesis)

Adams, A. E., and Walker, E. E., Democratic Citizenship in Today's World, 89. (J. Ira Kreider)

Bagley, William C. Jr. and Perdew, Richard M., Understanding Economics, 220 (Samuel M. Brodsky)

Barker, Roger G. and Wright, Herbert F., One Boy's Day; A Specimen Record of Behavior, 223. (Marian Rayburn Brown)

Berrien, F. K., Comments and Cases On Human Relations, 220. (John W. Carr, Jr.)

Best, Harry, The Soviet State and Its Inception, 88. (Donald C. Gordon)

Bining, Arthur C., A History of the United States, 180, (Mahlon H. Hellerich)

Bining, Arthur C. and Klein, Philip S., A History of the United States, 180. (Mahlon H. Hellerich)

Bossing, Nelson L. and Martin, Robert R., Youth Faces Its Problems, 44. (Bertha M. Hirzel)

Brown, Francis, Raymond of the Times, 268. (Elmer W. Cressman)

Brubacher, J. S., Modern Philosophies of Education, 92. (John B. Noss)

Burney, James, History of the Buccaneers of America, 137. (Kenneth V. Lottick)

Bye, Raymond T., Social Economy and the Price System, 92. (Allan G. Gruchy)

Carman, E. Day, Soviet Imperialism, Russia's Drive Toward World Domination, 93. (Garton S. Greene)

Carpenter, Frances, Caribbean Lands: Mexico, Central America and West Indies, 90. (David W. Harr)

Carter, E. W. and Rohlfing, C. C., The American Government and Its Work, 307. (W. Leon Godshall)

Chase, Stuart, Roads to Agreement, 257. (Frederic S. Klein)

Comfort, George O., Knapp, Royce H., and Shull, Charles W., Your Government, 180. (Ira Kreider)

Crow, Lester D., and Crow, Alice, High School Education, 310. (Kenneth V. Lottick)

Davenport, R. W., U.S.A.: The Permanent Revolution, 266. (Justus Hanks)

Davidson, Marshall B., Life in America, 219. (Ralph Adams Brown)

Fairchild, Henry Pratt, Versus: Reflections of A Sociologist, 91. (Milton M. Gordon)

Feiling, Keith, A History of England from the Coming of the English to 1938, 93. (Bernard C. Weber)

Fincher, Ernest B., Ferguson, John H. and McHenry, Dean E., American Government Today, 222. (Norman D. Palmer)

Gist, Noel P., Missouri: Its Resources, People, and Institutions, 139. (Dorothy Leggett)

Hoffman, David, Readings in Democracy, 309. (Arthur D. Graeff)

Holborn, Hajo, The Political Collapse of Europe, 267. (Alfred D. Low)

Hyman, Albert, and Slosson, Preston, The Growth of Western Civilization, 219. (Mahlon H. Hellerich)

Isaacs, Harold R., The Tragedy of the Chinese Revolution, 262. (W. M. Gewehr)

Johnson, Claudio O., American National Government, 181. (Glenn Weaver)

Johnson, Claudio O., Government in the United States, 140. (Joseph S. Roucek)

Johnson, Julia E., The Investigating Powers of Congress, 182. (Sadie Engleberg)

Kazemzaheh, Firuz, The Struggle for Transcaucasia, 347. (Joseph S. Roucek)

Kohler, Phyllis Penn, Journey for Our Time: The Journals of the Marquis de Custine, 179. (Donald C. Gordon)

Latourette, Kenneth Scott, A Short History of the Far East, 265. (Margaret T. Halligan)

Lief, Alfred, Harvey Firestone: Free Man of Enterprise, 143. (Ralph Adams Brown)

MacDonald, Austin F., American City Government and Administration, 260. (Albert A. Blum)

MacDonald, H. M., Webb, W. D., Lewis, E. G. and Strauss, W. L., Outside Readings in American Government. (Joseph S. Roucek)

Marshall, Max S., Two Sides to a Teachers' Desk, 94. (John W. Carr, Jr.)

Martindale, Don, and Monachesi, Elio D., Elements of Sociology, 90. (Morris S. Greth)

McGrath, Earl James, Education, The Wellspring of Democracy, 258. (Kenneth V. Lottick)

McKean, Richard, Democracy in a World of Tensions: A Symposium Proposed by UNESCO, 259. (Mahlon H. Hellerich)

Mead, Margaret, Soviet Attitudes Toward Authority, 262. (Richard H. Bauer)

Miller, Glen W., Problems of Labor, 46. (Richard Lowitt)

Montgomery, Mabel, A Courageous Conquest, The Life Story of Franklin Delano Roosevelt, 182. (Louis A. Millendorf)

Munro, Dana Gardner, The Latin American Republics, 45. (William L. Neumann)

Nunemelin, Ragnar, The Beginnings of Diplomacy, A Sociological Study of Intertribal and International Relations, 178. (Kenneth V. Lottick)

Painter, Sidney, The Reign of King John, 264. (Mahlon H. Hellerich)

Pankhurst, E. Sylvia, Ex-Italian Somaliland, 38. (Joseph S. Roucek)

Peattie, R. and Bailey, P., The Teaching of Geography: A Dynamic Approach, 141. (Leroy O. Myers)

Quillen, I. James and Krug, Edward, Living in Our America, A Record of Our Country, 142. (Louis Gottschalk)

Rademaker, J. A., These Are Americans, 260. (Kenneth V. Lottick)

Robertson, Wanda, An Evaluation of the Culture Unit Method for Social Education, 221. (Kenneth V. Lottick)

Roucek, Joseph S., Introduction to Political Sciences, 265. (Norman D. Palmer)

Russell, R. J. and Kniffen, F. B., Culture Worlds, 47. (Wilfred T. Grenfell)

Shannon, F. A., America's Economic Growth, 307. (W. M. Gewehr)

Shotwell, James T., Governments of Continental Europe, 345. (Alfred D. Low)

Soothill, W. E., A History of China, 345. (Clifford Montgomery)

Thomas, Norman, A Socialist's Faith, 89. (Harold M. Helfman)

Thompson, Craig, The Police State, 264. (Harry Fantz)

Titmuss, Richard M., Problems of Social Policy, 140. (Harold M. Helfman)

Wallbank, T. Walter, Man's Story, 138. (W. A. Browne)

Waller, Willard, The Family: A Dynamic Interpretation, 45. (Wayne C. Neely)

Ward, Barbara, Policy for the West, 137. (Herbert R. Herington)

Winslow, Mary N., Woman at Work, The Autobiography of Mary Anderson, 263. (Marian Rayburn Brown)

Windsor, Edward, Duke of, A King's Story, 257. (S. A. Wallace)

Woodward, C. Vann, Origins of the New South 1877-1913, 346. (John L. Harr)

Znaniecki, Florian, Cultural Sciences: Their Origin and Development, 347. (Jerry A. Neprash)

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Eastern World.....	135abc	China	150ab
England	121abc	Mediterranean World.....	113abc
Europe (bds. of 1921).....	72ab, 82abc	Russia in 1914.....	127ab
Europe (bds. of 1914).....	89abc, 101b	Spain	128bc
Europe (no bds.).....	99ab, 22aa, 101a	World, Elliptical (bds.).....	27aa, 70ab
Europe, Central (bds. of 1914).....	112a	World, Mercator (no bds.).....	
Europe, Central (no bds.).....	21aa, 112b	28aa, 71ab, 81abc, 100ab
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Middle Atlantic States.....	183b, 187abc	Southwestern United States (no bds.).....	171b
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